

The Nation.

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The Week.

THERE was tacked on to the Civil Service Appropriation Bill, in the very last hour of the Forty-first Congress, a section which authorizes the President to make rules prescribing the qualifications of Government employees, and providing the means of testing the fitness of candidates and regulating the nature and length of their tenure of office. This imposes on the President a serious responsibility, which he is bound not to shirk, and which he can use to purify the service to a considerable extent. Mr. Jenckes, who has worked so hard in this cause, may be cordially congratulated on having witnessed this triumph of his ideas at the close of his Congressional term.

The report of the Congressional Committee appointed to investigate the affairs of the New York Custom-house has been published during the week. It is impossible to enumerate here the various abuses discovered, or the special remedies proposed for them. Collector Murphy managed to deny that he made many appointments in obedience to the applications of senators or representatives, but this he has never been charged with. What he is charged with is having undertaken the management of the Custom-house, not mainly with a view to the efficient, economical collection of the public revenue, but to the bolstering up of the Republican party in this city, and with having made appointments and dismissals with reference to men's political activity rather than to their honesty and ability; and this he will hardly venture to deny. The committee say "they have discovered some pernicious practices affecting the integrity of employees. There are chronic evils which have come down through many years, and are so thoroughly entrenched in the practice of the Custom-house as to impress the committee with the belief that though they may be partially removed by an able and honest Administration, they cannot be wholly eradicated until public offices shall cease to be administered in the interests of politics, and men shall be appointed to office on account of their integrity and capacity to fulfil the duties devolving upon them in public business. In the view of the committee, the Custom-house of New York, as well as all other departments of the Government, should be administered on the same principles upon which private business is conducted."

To conduct public business on the same principles on which private business is conducted is, however, just the thing politicians do not want to do. Mr. Boutwell wishes to use the Government offices in the Treasury to help young men to get an education for the ministry, or for medicine, or for the bar, and others wish to use them to reward faithful electioneering service; others, again, to nourish "enthusiasm" for the party in power. Nearly all Congressmen want to use them to help them in retaining their own seats, and a considerable portion of the public, which takes no interest in politics, would fain treat Government offices as charitable institutions to furnish refuges to the old or infirm or unsuccessful. The hopeless view which the politicians are disposed to take of fraud and incompetency in the public service is very amusing to those who have seen the same persons pouring out their souls on the stump about the grand destiny of man on this continent. Mr. Boutwell thinks examinations would be of no use, because they would not prevent young men from giving way to the temptation offered by the chance of sudden wealth. Mr. Murphy, being asked what he thought as to the remedy for certain frauds in the Custom-house, answered vaguely and sadly, "that we should have to go back to Adam and make man perfect to prevent them altogether." Nothing that will not make a clean sweep of sin will satisfy these purists. But Mr. Grinnell testified that "the only true and economical way to prosecute the pub-

lic business" was to prosecute it "on the same principles as private business." Mr. Palmer, the appraiser, thought the same thing, and acknowledged that removing employees on account of their political opinions was injurious to the service—was "not in keeping with the genius of our institutions," as being a species of persecution "tending to destroy liberty of political action." It ought to be mentioned that all attempts made in the course of the investigation, even in the Leet case, to connect the President either with corrupt practices or the use of his influence to have anybody employed in the Custom-house who was accused of corrupt practices, failed.

The murderer of a negro was recently taken from jail in Kentucky by an armed band, and set at liberty. So Judge Pryor, in charging the Grand Jury of Frankfort County, in which the outrage took place, took occasion to explain the matter. There is a Kentucky statute which prohibits the reception of negro testimony, but when negro testimony is refused by the State courts, the Federal courts take hold of the case; and it was to prevent the trial of this murderer by the Federal courts after the State Grand Jury had thrown out the bill against him, that the rescue took place. Judge Pryor, while strongly condemning the State legislation which excludes negro testimony, lays down some curious doctrine as to the political character of the act of giving evidence. He says it is no right at all, but a duty or obligation imposed by the State; and if the State does not ask him to perform it, or refuses to let him, he has no more reason to complain than, we suppose, if it refused to let him pay his taxes. So that if a man punches your head, and you offer to bear witness against him, nobody else having been by, the District-Attorney releases you from a burden by not letting you appear. The only person in this case, Judge Pryor says, who is deprived of any right, or threatened with the deprivation of any right, is the murderer, inasmuch as he is entitled to be tried by the State courts; so that the mob, in carrying him off, were defending the State constitution from Federal encroachments.

Indeed, the Kentucky mind seems to be a good deal confused just now on the whole subject of rights and duties, inasmuch as the State is overrun by bodies of Ku-klux, who apparently suppose themselves to be engaged in the administration of an improved system of jurisprudence, which, however, must differ widely from that of the rest of the civilized world, as it permits robbery and murder and the stoppage of the mails. Indeed, the right or duty, whichever it is, of the mail-carrier to carry the mails, is so seriously questioned by these jurists that the Postmaster-General has been obliged to suspend the line between Louisville and Lexington, and the people along this route are now dependent on expresses for their means of communication. Of course the Governor is not likely to call for Federal assistance in keeping the peace, but we presume that when the mails are stopped, the President can see to it that order is restored without asking the Governor's leave. If things do not soon change for the better in some of the Southern States, we fear that the Spanish-American type will begin to show itself among their politicians, and that is one degree worse than even the New York City type.

The financial markets have witnessed an eventful week. The Treasury debt statement, showing a decrease for the month of over seven millions of dollars, promptly followed the announcement of the intended heavy bond purchases and sales of gold. The evident desire of the Secretary to keep money easy, and to advance the price of bonds, in order to aid his funding schemes, was taken advantage of by the speculative fraternity to run up the prices of stocks of every description, and even the outside public was induced by it to become heavy buyers, at a great and rapid advance in values. The Secretary's gigantic funding machinery has, however, as far as American markets are concerned, proved a failure. The rise in the Bank of England rate, though probably more due to uneasiness concerning cotton

speculations, is said to be partly intended to frustrate the scheme for the European markets as well. The Alabama railroad interest, in spite of a great flourish, has not been paid as yet; and the State of Missouri seems bound to follow Louisiana and all the other reckless States, by issuing fresh loans of seven or eight millions to new railroad enterprises.

Trade, during the week, has been quiet, steady, and small, the prominent feature of all business being indisposition to buy more than required by immediate needs. The receipts of cotton, although necessarily declining, continue large, and the exports for the week reach the high figure of 140,000 bales, worth about ten millions of dollars. But under the pressure of heavy stocks, and owing to the failure of the speculation based upon peace, prices have again sharply declined, and are now lower than at any time since 1861. Breadstuffs continue firm, both abroad and here, and with the opening of the canals we may witness an active revival of shipments, since we have, what has not occurred for years, a surplus of both wheat and corn for export. Cured meats are lower, and fresh meat again considerably lower—in fact, much below prices of any time since 1863, and lower in spite of comparatively small stock, a very significant indication of the condition of general prosperity. The knowledge of this great decline does not, however, appear to have reached the ears of the retailers. Sugar has been lower, but other groceries continue firm. Real estate is feverish, and weak holders are anxious, but there is no visible pressure to sell.

We have given elsewhere the principal points of a letter touching the professional conduct of the Erie counsel which General F. C. Barlow has addressed to the New York *Tribune*, in advance of the action of the Bar Association, of which he is a prominent member. We commend it to the careful perusal of all men and women in this State who own any property, even if they care nothing for public morals and for the credit of the bench and bar. We hope, too, all ministers and teachers will read it, and explain to everybody under their influence what a shameful story it is, and what a disgrace to the community is the state of things it reveals. We trust they will also thank General Barlow for taking on himself a duty from which so many of his brethren shrink, and which is in its very nature disagreeable to the last degree. There is a strong disposition at the bar to wait for judicial corruption to be put down by a windmill, or hydraulic ram, or some other self-acting machine; and we are, therefore, all under deep obligations to any man who offers "to pay with his person." General Barlow has done this before now on bloodier, but, we say it in all sincerity, hardly more important, fields.

In South Carolina things grow no better. Governor Scott, in asking for assistance, says the Ku-klux have a regular organization, with staff and line officers and gradations of rank, and act as a regular military force; and he declares that the legislature had to have the roads to the capital picketed, while they were sitting recently, to prevent themselves from being "gobbled up." This is all horrible, but we have no hesitation in saying that it is the not unnatural consequence of the caricature on government which has been kept up in that State for the last four years. Nothing can well justify mob law, but when a civilized community finds itself subjected to the rule of its most ignorant members, aided or managed by knavish adventurers, all rational men know that mob law is not unlikely to result. Society in the South is in an unnatural state, and it is kept in an unnatural state by a policy of proscription which has long ceased to have any excuse. The proper men to legislate for the South are those in whom the community has most confidence, and as long as they are prevented we shall have trouble. The weak point of the complaints which come from some of the States about the Ku-klux is that those who make them have all along declared that proscription was necessary to their protection. It now appears, however, that it is no protection at all.

The territories ceded by France to Germany, as specified in a special despatch to the London *Telegraph* purporting to give the text of

the preliminaries of peace signed at Versailles, are, with the only important exception of Belfort and its environs, the same which the conquerors, months ago, marked out to form the "Gouvernement" of Alsace, and have since separately governed. The line of demarcation begins on the southern border of Luxemburg, west of the Moselle, and runs to the vicinity of Briey; thence, with considerable windings, to Gorze; skirts the southern boundary of the Department of Moselle; divides the Department of Meurthe into two unequal parts, running southeast to the neighborhood of Schirmeck, on the borders of Meurthe, Vosges, Haut-Rhin, and Bas-Rhin; follows the Vosges Mountains and the western boundary of Alsace until it reaches the Canton of Belfort, whence it passes diagonally to the Canton of Delle, and terminates south of Delle, reaching the Swiss frontier. This line gives to Germany the whole of Alsace—the Departments of Haut-Rhin and Bas-Rhin—with the exception of Belfort in the southwestern corner of it; three out of the four arrondissements of the Lotharingian Department of Moselle—Thionville, Metz, and Sarreguemines, France retaining Briey with the fortress of Longwy; and two out of the five arrondissements of the Lotharingian Department of Meurthe—Château-Salins and Sarrebourg, France retaining Lunéville, Nancy, and Toul. The ceded territory embraces about six thousand English square miles—that is, about one-thirty-fifth of the area of France, not including Algeria—and contains about one million six hundred thousand inhabitants—that is, about one-twenty-fifth of her population.

Immediately after the ratification of the preliminaries by the French National Assembly, and in conformity with the stipulations of the treaty, the Germans began the evacuation of the Departments of Calvados, Orne, Sarthe, Indre-et-Loire, Loir-et-Cher, Eure-et-Loir, Loiret, and Yonne, and of all portions of Eure, Seine-et-Oise, Seine-et-Marne, and Aubelying south of the Seine. They also surrender the Paris forts on the north bank of the Seine, and the French capital, thus entirely freed of the presence of the invaders, is to be garrisoned by forty thousand French, the remainder of the French forces retiring south of the Loire, or holding the northern fortresses, until the definitive declaration of peace. The Germans are gradually to abandon the territories occupied north of the Seine, on the payment by France of at least five hundred million francs of the indemnity. After the payment of \$400,000,000, their temporary occupation is to be restricted to the Departments of Marne, Ardennes, Meuse, Meurthe, and Vosges, in Champagne and French Lorraine, and after the payment of another \$400,000,000, their army in France is not to exceed fifty thousand men. The whole indemnity of \$1,000,000,000 is to be paid within three years. The army of occupation is to be supported by the French Government. The departments occupied will be governed by French officials, under the control of the German commanders. The inhabitants of the ceded territories are to enjoy the benefit of favorable arrangements, if determined to emigrate into France. Measures are taken for the speedy return of the French prisoners and interned soldiers from Germany, Belgium, and Switzerland.

The conditions of the German entry into Paris formed an incidental part of the peace stipulations agreed upon at Versailles, and took place in perfect conformity with them. The Germans entered Paris early on the morning of Wednesday, March 1, in two columns, numbering together thirty thousand men, and advancing in converging lines from the Porte de Neuilly and Point du Jour, respectively, to the Place de la Concorde—the one marching through the Avenue de la Grande Armée, the Place de l'Étoile, and the Avenue des Champs Élysées, and the other along the northern banks of the Seine. The triangle formed by these two lines and that portion of the *enceinte* extending from the Porte de Neuilly to Point du Jour was all that was allotted by the terms of the convention to be occupied by the triumphant forces. All approaches to it from the rest of Paris were guarded by French troops, and partly barricaded, in order to prevent a collision between the less cautious portions of the populace and of the invaders. The appearance and the discipline of the Germans were such as might be expected on so grand an occasion, and the Parisians, exhorted to be calm and dig-

nified, by proclamations from Thiers and Vinoy, as well as by the journals of all shades, submitted to the humiliation with good grace. The Emperor William, Moltke, and Bismarck shone by their absence on one side, and the journals of Paris by their non-appearance on the other. The speedy ratification of the preliminaries of peace by the Bordeaux Assembly fortunately soon delivered both the conquerors and the conquered of the annoyance and tedium of the strained position in which they were placed by the strange fortunes of war. Copies of the ratified treaty having been signed and exchanged on Friday, the 3d, the evacuation of Paris by the Germans was begun on the evening of that day, and completed on the morning of the following.

Whether intended to have that effect or not, the occupation of Paris undoubtedly hastened the ratification of the preliminaries in Bordeaux. Thiers laid the treaty before the Assembly on the last of February, declaring that himself and his colleagues had gone to the limit of their responsibility, and that the representatives of the people must be accountable for the rest; none of them should abstain from voting; nor should there be any delay, for delay might be disastrous to Paris and the country. The vote on the treaty took place on the following day, after the hearing of a report by the Consultative Committee, recommending the adoption, and after a stormy debate, during which a resolution decreeing the fall of the Empire, and stigmatizing Napoleon III. as the author of the calamities of France, was adopted by enthusiastic acclamation. The result, as reported by the Cable, was: five hundred and forty-six votes for, and one hundred and seven against, the ratification. The aggregate of these votes, however, being short by exactly one hundred of the whole number of the members of the Assembly, it remains to be seen whether the difference is owing to so many absences and abstentions from voting, or to the dropping by error of a hundred yeas or nays. During the debate, the Assembly was guarded by troops. In a subsequent sitting, Rochefort and some other representatives resigned their seats, protesting against the cession of Alsace and East Lorraine as illegal, while Félix Pyat declared that he did not resign, but that he would never enter the Assembly until the cession was rescinded. Soon after, we hear, several Radical members left for Paris, probably to receive the ovation due to self-imposed martyrdom, and to prepare a different kind of reception for their ratifying colleagues, should they dare to transfer the seat of the Assembly to the Radical capital, which is a question under debate.

England is occupied thoroughly with the discussion of the Army Reform Bill, but the renewal of the disturbances in Ireland, in spite of the admirable working of the Land Act, is driving the Ministry into asking Parliament for fresh powers of repression. Hitherto it has been only jurors who had anything to fear from malcontents, now the lives of the judges going the circuit are threatened. The disease is somewhat similar in character to that by which another branch of the same family of politicians is afflicted in Paris. When deputies resign their seats in the French Assembly, as some of them have done, because the majority decided contrary to their wishes, and the National Guard hoists the black flag, and retires gloriously to the heights of Montmartre with its mitrailleuses, after the treaty of peace is signed, and the Prussians, whom they never could be got to attack while the war was raging, are walking about the streets of the capital, they are afflicted with much the same malady as the Fenians—impracticability, which may be called the small-pox of politics.

It can hardly be said that the future is any more promising than it was a week ago. The Paris papers, even the most sensible, talk of "vengeance" as one of the great objects for which the French nation is now to live and labor, which means, of course, the continued devotion of the national mind to military preparations, and the continued exaltation of the military ideal. After the catastrophe of 1815, to "venger Waterloo" became the great object of French ambition; and forty years' talking, writing, and singing about this at last made possible the *coup d'état* of 1851. It is greatly to be feared that we are now

about to witness a similar process with a similar result. A nation which lives for "vengeance" cannot wreak it. To be able to take its revenge, it has to give up all thoughts of it, and turn its mind to industry and peace, for it is through industry and peace that strength comes. The free-traders are probably about to suffer the consequences of accepting a free-trade policy from an arbitrary imperial decree, Thiers, who is a rabid protectionist, having appointed his old ally in the Corps Législatif, Pouyer-Quertier, Minister of Finance, and they will probably make short work of the treaty with England.

The full reports by mail of the debates in the Italian Chamber of Deputies indicate a great division of sentiment, and a singular weakness on the part of the Ministry in regard to the settlement to be made with the Pope. There was first the Government bill indicating the general policy which the Government had marked out for itself. This was referred to a committee, which reported another bill as an amendment, and on the latter the debates were conducted, the Government yielding on minor points of principle, and generally on the phraseology, and resisting where they saw proper. The difference in the two measures was on the whole considerable, the Government feeling hampered by its international obligations and pledges, and conceding the extreme of immunity and independence to the Pope, while the committee has sought to mitigate the anomaly of a double sovereignty in a constitutional state. Navigation under these conditions among bigoted Papists, enlightened Catholics, Protestants, and free-thinkers of all shades, has naturally not been of the easiest. The majority favored the committee's plan rather than the Ministers', but was not to be counted upon by either. It turned on both when it declined, as the committee proposed, making an open question of the ownership of the Vatican and Lateran, with their art-galleries and library, and declared them national property outright; and it was immediately arrayed against the committee, and in favor of the right of asylum for the Pope's quarters, when the Ministers, who had equally shared the previous discomfiture, determined to make a Cabinet question of this article. We are yet without the details of the Senate's amendments to the patchwork of the Deputies, and only know that the Pope scornfully rejects the guarantees *in toto*, as well he may, considering that the next Parliament may undo what this one has done.

A striking illustration of the wide ramifications of all great commercial and political movements is furnished at this moment by the condition of the bullion markets of the world. The war of secession deprived England of her usual supply of American cotton, and induced her to foster and force the production of this staple in India, the only other important source of supply. The first requisite for its production was capital, which was sent principally in the shape of gold and silver coin and bullion, and this coin and bullion was drawn chiefly from the United States, the only country at that time able to spare it, in consequence of having suspended specie payments. In the first years of the war a large amount of gold and silver was sent from New York to England, and then transshipped to the East; later on, the bulk was sent from San Francisco direct by the Pacific mail steamers. But our two last cotton crops have again become large enough to supply England's wants the same as in former years, and her importation of Eastern cotton is diminishing. As a natural consequence, the flow of bullion is likewise changed. Little, if any, is being sent to India from San Francisco, while large amounts are returning to England direct, both in silver and gold, and we should not be surprised to see at an early day the strange sight of California becoming the recipient of coin shipments from India and China, followed by fresh crises, panics, commercial and political disturbances throughout the East, where monetary derangements disorganize society with a rapidity, vehemence, and fatality of which we can scarcely form a conception. The derangement in the food supply, brought about by the increased area of land devoted to cotton, cost hundreds of thousands of lives—a famine whose horrors make those of Ireland of 1846 and '47 seem insignificant. A monetary derangement brought on by a drain of specie, might produce results even more widespread.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION.

We print elsewhere two letters from two different observers, looking on from different points of view, which, put together, give a tolerably accurate notion of the state of things at Washington. One of them deals more particularly with the prospects of the Republican party, which, it must be admitted, are not bright. Indeed, the peculiar control of affairs which the party has exercised ever since 1861 ceased on Saturday last with the loss of the two-thirds vote. Its majority, too, is so torn with dissensions that it may safely be said that the only questions on which it could be depended on with certainty are questions not likely to come up. The matters which now excite most interest are matters on which the party, as such, cannot be said to have any policy or any unity of sentiment, and first and foremost amongst these are the position and prospects of the Administration. Indeed, it would be difficult to point out a single question now occupying, or likely to occupy, the public mind which Congress is not likely to debate with reference mainly to its influence on the political fortunes of General Grant. This is true of the *Alabama* question; it is true of the San Domingo question and of the civil service question, and, though in a less degree, of the financial question. Of course, it may be said that this is a state of things which comes about towards the close of every Presidential term when the President is known to be a candidate for renomination, and to have some chance of getting it. But the peculiarity of General Grant's case is that he has managed to excite an amount of hostility among Congressmen for which there is nothing in the state of feeling about him out-of-doors to account. Indeed, none of the attacks made on him have seriously damaged him in the estimation of the country at large. The popular faith in his honesty is still very strong, and honesty, in the popular estimation, very naturally and very properly, is allowed to cover a multitude of sins. His mistakes have been of a kind which wear a trifling appearance at a distance, but which, to those who are in official contact with him, are exasperating; and hence it is that, since the first year of his Administration, he has not had any strong following in Congress.

The country expected from him, of all things, administrative reforms and indifference to "political" considerations, in the technical sense of the term. In the beginning, he set about satisfying these expectations; but, finding himself pertinaciously resisted, he lost heart, and, instead of appealing to the people for support, which would have been enthusiastically afforded him, he abandoned the rôle of a reformer and took up that of a regular politician, for which he was totally unfitted both by nature and experience. He got rid of such of his immediate adherents as the party managers found most obnoxious, and took into his confidence such men as Cameron and Forney and Butler. He had apparently given up all interest in the very thing for which the public looked to him with most confidence—civil service reform—but, being alarmed by the fuss made about Cox's resignation, threw a tub to the whale by a recommendation in its favor in his Message. How little meaning this had, however, was shown by "Tom Murphy's" appointment as collector of this port—Mr. Murphy being a man for whom no reformed service could possibly provide a place.

Finding the field of internal administration so very thorny, and his unpopularity seeming to gain ground, he turned his attention to foreign affairs. He is far too honest a man and too good a soldier to stir up a war wantonly to help him out of party difficulties. So he turned his attention first to the annexation of San Domingo, and, more recently, to the settlement of the *Alabama* question. We do not need to discuss the merits of the San Domingo scheme. Whether it be good or bad, it is safe to say that it is about the last thing the country expected the Administration to give its whole energies to. If, in 1868, the voters could have been asked what they expected Grant's Administration to do for the country, some would have said they expected him to get us back to specie payments; others, to fund the national debt at a lower rate of interest; others, to pacify the South; others, to reform the tariff and the internal taxes; and others, to reform the civil service; and others, again, to settle our disputes with England; but we venture to say that nobody would ever have guessed that the great work of the Administration was to be the annexation of one end of the island of San Domingo, and that to this everything else was to be sub-

ordinated; or, if he had, he would have been laughed at. The whole thing has been a perfect surprise to the country, and the sending out of the Commission, though it has helped to vindicate the President's motives, has done so at considerable cost to his reputation for good sense. The *Alabama* matter, too, he has not grappled with. The Administration contented itself for two years with repeating once more the arguments which Adams, Bemis, and Sumner had worn threadbare, but left the matter exactly where it was, declining to state what it wanted as satisfaction, and the approaches which have brought about the sitting of the Commission at Washington have come from England. Upon no point in that vast subject known as the financial question has the President taken any decided ground whatever, or, indeed, does he seem to have any strong opinions. On the income tax, he is said to differ completely from the Secretary of the Treasury, and his views on the nature of foreign trade, as revealed in his San Domingo messages, made it plain that to this field of knowledge he had given but little attention.

We shall probably have some decided action from the new Congress with regard to the tariff, but its action upon all other subjects is very likely to be influenced by the approach of a new Presidential term, which is the same thing as saying that the President is not likely to carry anything in which he shows a strong interest. We shall be only too thankful if this does not affect the result of the labors of the High Commission. A successful—that is, a satisfactory—settlement would be something for the Administration to carry into the canvass, and that it needs something is undeniable.

The great need of the country now is the appearance in the Executive chair of somebody able to give weight and dignity to, or, in short, to make an issue of, some one of the great reforms which are awaiting popular attention. Parties are evidently getting into a state of disorganization, and need remarrying on new lines and for the work of general legislation. It is melancholy, but true, as a correspondent remarked in writing to us the other day, that the national legislature shows itself incapable or unwilling to deal thoroughly with a single great evil except slavery, and it was rather forced into dealing with that by the outrageous behavior of the slaveholders than by a settled conviction of its own that it had to be dealt with. Ever since slavery passed out of the political arena, Congress has been occupied in passing special acts or providing privileges for special interests. Not one of the great problems by which the public mind is vexed has it attempted to solve, and no serious attempt has been made by the Executive to push it up to its work; and this we hold to be one of the most important duties of the Executive in the present state of things. A commissioner having been appointed to supply information with regard to the industrial resources of the country, so as to furnish a basis for a new and revised system of taxation adapted to the wants of American society, the President dismissed him as soon as his reports began to excite interest, and has never given any sign of a desire to have a real system of taxation framed. The questions of the railroad monopolies, of the condition of the civil service, and of the currency have been put by with the same air of indifference, and in the meantime the confusion grows greater, and the uncertainty as to what position the party in power will eventually take up continues. We cannot help doubting whether, when people come to ask themselves why they re-elect General Grant, they will be completely satisfied with the answer that he means well and does not steal. This is a standpoint which every great nation speedily passes by. There is nothing more needed at Washington than the appearance of some influence strong enough to force a great reform on Congressional attention, and keep Congress pegging away at it till it is disposed of; and one great reform at a time is as much as the public is competent to deal with.

THE TRUE HISTORY OF THE COAL TROUBLE.

THE WAR BETWEEN THE COMPANIES.

For twenty years prior to 1862 the price of coal ruled with remarkable steadiness in the neighborhood of \$3 60 per ton, the regular wholesale price of Schuylkill coal at the wharf of Philadelphia never, during that period—with the exception of parts of 1854, '55, and '56—averag-

ing above \$3 90 nor below \$3 20. During the whole of that period the mine-owners and mine-operators were never weary of assuring their friends and the public that their business was always unprofitable, and frequently disastrous. Nevertheless, strange as it may seem, fresh mines were being constantly opened, new companies being formed in rapid succession, additional railroad connections projected and built, and the production of coal increased year by year, *without one single interruption*, from one million tons in 1842 to five millions in 1852, and eight millions in 1862, while it is close upon seventeen millions in 1870. Lest some ingenious person thoughtlessly accuse the coal-miners of those days of injudiciously sacrificing their interests to the public welfare, it will be necessary to explain how a large and important industry, although wretchedly unprofitable, can nevertheless be expanded and increased year by year.

All loose and reckless assertion to the contrary notwithstanding, the area of the anthracite coal-beds is so large that many years will elapse before they are fully taken up. Twenty years ago, mile after mile of the prettiest farms and wildest mountain forests in the United States covered the most important coal-mines, and were then worth from fifty cents to fifty dollars an acre. The gradual increase in the demand for coal would naturally have advanced the value of these lands, but not for many years to anything like their present prices. Indeed, the *bona-fide* owner of such property never received more than a very small portion of the price paid by the purchaser. Generally the property was nominally sold at a moderate advance over its farm value to some speculator, who, precisely as has been at all times the practice of gold and silver-mine speculators, got up a stock company in Philadelphia, New York, or elsewhere, and sold the property to the company at an enormous figure, frequently ten or twenty times the real cost. The profit thus realized by these speculators and their confederates was for years the main incentive to the creation of new companies and the opening of new mines, during the very time when older companies were earning nominal dividends, actually losing money, or in a state of chronic bankruptcy. Of course, each new company, in order to justify its directors in paying enormous prices for valuable mines, was obliged to work the mines and show how productive they were, and to turn out, if not large dividends to gladden the hearts of the stockholders, at least large piles of coal to blind their judgments; and thus, at the very time when the company should have been getting a high price for coal in order to earn dividends on the fictitious capital invested in the pockets of the projectors and confederate directors, it was necessarily ruining its own market and depressing the price by a steady production in excess of the wants of the community. Of course, coal-mining, though steadily increasing, was not over-profitable to the *bona-fide* stockholders, though rather more than profitable to the projectors and directors aforesaid.

It is evident that under these circumstances the hired laborers of these companies could not prosper greatly; they were truly crushed between the upper and nether millstone, and prior to 1863 they were about the worst-paid class of workmen in the United States. But as the companies themselves were not making money, but were continually becoming involved, and as besides the coal regions offered many other advantages of cheap sustenance and varied employment, the working miners were, though a rough lot, not specially nor permanently troublesome. The first serious trouble in the coal regions arose from an entirely different cause.

As soon as communication with the mining regions furnished a new opening for railroad enterprises, the railroad schemes were taken in hand by the same men, or the same class of men, who had acquired experience, skill, and money by their manipulations of the mining companies; and similar tactics were employed to make money out of new roads. Of course the value of the mines and the price of coal depended largely upon the means of getting it to market, so that every one interested in the mines became an eager promoter of the roads, and if the roads were only set running, no one enquired too scrupulously how the thing was done. Roads were thus built, costing in reality but one-half or three-quarters of the first mortgage bonds issued against them, and were then saddled with an additional stock capital

equal to the bonds, making the nominal cost of the road three or four times as large as its real cost, the difference being but an indifferent reward for the self-sacrificing projectors and their confederates in the board of directors. Of course, the road was expected to earn dividends on the twenty-five dollars of real cost, as well as on the seventy-five dollars of fictitious cost—and the result necessarily was precisely the same as with the mines: more roads were built than were needed; there was not coal enough carried on any of them to pay dividends on real cost, much less on the fictitious cost; yet the roads must be kept running—reckless competition ensued, the companies at one time carrying freight very low, and then again desperately charging exorbitant rates, and entirely refusing to carry coal when the mine-owners were unwilling to submit. Hence incessant quarrels between the railroad companies and the mining companies, first the one striking, then the other striking; one suspending work at the mines to force down freights, the other stopping all trains to compel the mine-owners to come to terms. The result was inevitable. Coal companies broke down, and their property was gradually absorbed by rival companies. Railroad companies broke down, and their roads passed into the hands of large consolidated companies in New York and elsewhere.

The ruin of the railroads was naturally attributed to the quarrels with the mine-owners. To make the railroads independent of the mine-owners, it was decided that the roads must own their own coal-mines, must mine coal enough to be fully employed without carrying a ton for the old mine-owners, their long-time enemies. The great railroad companies became the chief buyers of coal-mines near their existing roads, and built new branches to every point at which they could secure desirable mines or lands. The relations between the two parties, however, did not improve in consequence. On the contrary, the struggle became more and more embittered, the railroads becoming more exacting as they became more independent of the old mine-owners, and the latter being almost ruined in their business by the obstacles thrown in their way by the carrying companies, through whom alone they could get their coal to market. The old mine-owners speedily became obliged, in the very struggle for existence, to open new outlets for their coal by becoming themselves builders and owners of railroads, independent of the original railroad companies. Thus, in the struggle to get possession of the carrying trade of the coal regions, the excessive competition for which had caused the ruin of the existing roads, fresh roads were built, necessarily doubling and trebling the ruinous competition for a traffic which was not large enough to keep even the old roads profitably employed. And since each fresh competition diminished the amount which each could get to carry, each road was necessarily forced to open up new mines and more mines, and to bring more coal to market to keep their roads employed. But before these quarrels and all their consequences had fully developed, the war broke out, and with the war came the first complication with the workingmen.

THE WAR BETWEEN THE COMPANIES AND MINERS.

DURING the general depression preceding the outbreak of the war, the price of coal sank to a lower point than ever before in thirty years; the monthly average for April and May of that year standing at \$2 78 for the long ton (of 2,240 lbs.) for the best Schuylkill coal at the wharf in Philadelphia. At these prices even the most favorably situated mines could probably only work at a loss, and production fell off slightly—very slightly; indeed, it is noticeable that 1861 and 1862 are the only years in the entire history of the coal trade in which the production did not exceed that of their immediate predecessors—so steady and uninterrupted has been the growth of this important industry. But with the progress of the war, with the suddenly added demand for the United States navy, and the general increase in business activity everywhere, coming upon a diminished stock and insufficient means, owing to enlistments, etc., to increase the production, the price rapidly advanced. In less than six months it doubled; in fifteen months it quadrupled. From \$2 78 in May, 1862, the price rose to \$10 75 in August, 1864; and for once every operator, and mine-owner, and

carrying company made money to his heart's content; for once every company declared dividends even on imaginary capital, and such dividends, too, that they were almost ashamed to let them be known, but handed them to their stockholders in various disguises. Of course, the companies and mine owners, taking into consideration the increased prices of the necessities of life, and their own increased earnings, immediately raised, doubled, and quadrupled the wages of their workmen. Not exactly! They never once raised the wages of their own accord. In every instance they compelled the men to strike, or to threaten a strike, before they yielded the advance. How just and necessary some advance was no one need be told. Whether the miners exceeded justice in their demands is not now in issue. The fact is, that no advance was yielded to them, except upon compulsion. And from this time dates the present complication with the men. As each strike was made the basis of a fresh advance in the price, and as the mine-owners and operators were making enormous profits, they did not object so much to the rise in the wages as to what they called "the dictation" of the men; and this was especially felt by the great consolidated companies who are at one and the same time miners, carriers, and sellers of coal.

So long as the duty of nine dollars gold a ton on pig-iron put heavy profits into the pockets of the iron-smelters, and steadily increased the number of furnaces at work, the coal trade continued active and the smouldering fire of war between the men and the great companies was not allowed to break into open flames. But when all these powerful stimulants were no longer able to keep consumption up to the level of incessantly increasing production, the struggle recommenced. The markets became glutted, and in the spring of 1868 prices fell as low as they had ever been since 1844, with the sole exception of the temporary panic at the outbreak of the war. If at that time the coal-mining business had been, as it was ten years before, in the hands of a number of smaller operators, the result would have been perfectly simple and natural. The weakest operators, or those whose mines were least favorably situated, would have been obliged to stop producing. Their workmen would have sought other employments, as far as they could, and by a gradual process the trade would have regulated itself.

But among the great companies there were no weak operators. Their mines were all alike favorably situated as far as their traffic was concerned. They all had large capitals invested, large roads to be kept in repair, an immense amount of rolling-stock to be kept running. None of these great companies could or would suspend any part of their works. But meanwhile the wages of the miners must be reduced. In the first place, it was just and proper that they should bear their part of the burden of an unprofitable trade. In the second place, now was the time to show the working miners the hopelessness of their struggle against the great companies. The men argued that a reduction of their wages would not stop the glut of coal; that as long as all the companies continued to work all existing mines and continued to open new ones, there would be an incessant glut, and they would not be able to find a market for their coal, even if the workmen consented to work *without wages*. The workmen did twice submit to reductions, but each time urged the folly of continuing to overload the market, which must end in still further reducing wages to a point at which existence would be impossible. But the companies were determined, and the history of 1868 was a succession of strikes, suspensions, agreements, resumption, and again suspension, accompanied by violent fluctuations in price, and at one time an advance to the very highest figures of war times. The public was duly informed by the companies of all the wickedness of the working miners which had led to this advance. But the public was not informed that the great Pennsylvania companies were, at that time, charging more than double the freight at which the Ohio and Baltimore were carrying bituminous coal over their steep grades and costly bridges, and were daily urging the latter company to "put on at least another dollar a ton," so as to enable all the other companies to get that additional advance. On the twice and thrice watered capitals of these companies, even double freights might not suffice to pay dividends, and what was wanting must be wrung from the consumer at one end of the road or from the working miner at the other. The

Baltimore and Ohio refused to accede, to become a party to the conspiracy, and, in the spring of 1869, production, in spite of the long and frequent suspensions in 1869, had again so far outrun consumption that coal had become almost unsalable at the lowest figures known; wages had got down—all the counter-assertions of the companies to the contrary notwithstanding—to an unreasonably low figure, and a complete deadlock was again in prospect.

After vain efforts of the companies to agree among themselves upon a *pro rata* reduction of their traffic, the miners, with great shrewdness, offered a voluntary suspension of thirty days, to enable the companies to work off their accumulated stocks. The offer was accepted, and, *under pretence of this so-called strike*, the companies increased the freight charges over their roads nearly one-half, ran up the price of coal to very high figures, and reaped small fortunes from the suspension. When the thirty days had expired, the companies expected the men to go to work at the old wages; but the men declared, not without an appearance of justice, that if the market price of coal was to depend upon their suspending and resuming work, they were certainly entitled to some portion of the advantages of their action, and they demanded that a price of wages should be fixed at the lowest price for coal, and that, if coal advanced beyond that price, their wages were to advance in proportion, on precisely the same principle on which the companies had invariably enforced a reduction of wages the moment the selling price of coal declined. This was called the "basis system," the supposed lowest price of coal being taken as the basis of wages.

It must be evident to every one that, as between laborer and employer, this basis system had great merit; but it became not only valueless but mischievous when it was to be employed as a regulator of production. The great companies indignantly rejected it. Some submitted after a long struggle. Some have never submitted to this day, preferring to pay the men higher wages rather than recognize the hated basis. But although, in consequence, the strike continued far beyond the original thirty days, averaging, probably, three months for the whole mining regions, the supply for the year was again in excess of the demand; and as soon as work started in the spring of 1870, prices again began to decline, and threatened to go lower than ever. The Reading Railroad Company, which controls the coal trade of the Schuylkill region, refused to abide by its agreement of the previous fall, and demanded that the wages should go lower than the lowest price agreed upon. The men refused at first, but after a four months' strike consented, and resumed work, having exhausted their means. In spite, however, of the four months' suspension of the region which furnishes nearly one-third of the total stock, the supply throughout the year 1870 again continued in excess of the demand, and the price continued to decline, until towards the close of the year the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western, by a reduction of wages, brought about a complete strike throughout the coal regions, the men declaring that there is no hope of peace until all the regions work upon the same basis, and do not directly compete or conflict with one another. They again and again urged the necessity of diminished production as the sole remedy to the present evils, continued production at the present rate being an impossibility. But the companies were unwilling to diminish their production. Their first step, therefore, was to starve the miners into submission. They not only refused to commence work themselves, but in order to prevent all others from working who did not control complete railroad connection with the sea-shore, they repeated their tactics of 1869, *trebled the freights* over all their lines, and cut off from two or three millions of people all supply of coal, in the midst of winter, creating incalculable disturbance to industry, throwing thousands out of employment, and inflicting untold suffering upon tens of thousands of the helpless poor.

The true nature of the evil is this: The country needs to-day about fifteen million tons of anthracite coal per annum. Half-a-dozen companies own mines enough and railroad facilities enough to bring twenty-five million tons to market. In order to earn dividends on their watered railroad stocks and the fictitious values of their mines, they are each one trying to do the whole of the business.

CURIOUS LEGAL INFORMATION FOR THE "ALBANY LAW JOURNAL."

WE recommend that innocent paper, the *Albany Law Journal*—which makes a business of watching, discussing, and reporting the proceedings of the courts of this State, and has reached the conclusion that there is no better foundation for the charges of corruption and misconduct against New York judges than "common report" which the *Nation* has "helped to create and circulate"—to read a letter from General Barlow in the *New York Tribune* of March 7. That letter is the first of a series apparently, and probably before this reaches our readers will have been followed by others. General Barlow takes up the challenge which Mr. D. D. Field gave Mr. Bowles—and which Mr. Bowles, for want of professional acquaintance with the facts, was unable to take up—on the point whether he (Mr. Field) "was consulted beforehand about any transaction whatever of these gentlemen (Fisk, Gould & Co.) to which any exception had been taken." The *Law Journal* will be surprised to hear that General Barlow, taking for his authority the evidence and judgment in the Fisk and Ramsey suit, tried before Judge Smith at Rochester, in November, 1869, makes the following statements:

1. That on a complaint, of which the material allegations were not sworn to, Judge Barnard appointed Mr. W. J. A. Fuller, formerly a clerk in Mr. Field's office, receiver of 3,000 shares of Albany and Susquehanna Railroad stock, belonging to one Groesbeck and others, on the ground that they had been illegally issued by Ramsey, the president of the road, and were therefore invalid, and that on this stock, so declared invalid, the said Fuller went and voted, by direction of Mr. T. G. Shearman, Mr. Field's partner, at an election of directors, at which Fisk was trying to get possession of the road. That order Judge Smith pronounced "in clear conflict with the laws and the settled practice of the court."

2. That in another suit of a similar character, Judge Barnard, on the application of the same counsel, on a complaint of which the material allegations were again not sworn to, granted an *ex-parte* order, enjoining Ramsey from acting as an officer of the company.

3. That in another similar suit, also on a complaint of which the material allegations were not sworn to, the same judge, by another *ex-parte* order, on the application of the same counsel, removed Ramsey from the office of president of the road, and appointed Charles Courter and James Fisk, Jr., receivers—that is, sought to put Fisk, Jr., in possession of the stockholders' property.

4. That in order to grant this injunction, Barnard left his mother very sick at Poughkeepsie, and in response to a telegram came to New York on the evening of August 6, 1869, and, reaching the city at 10.20 P.M., signed the order at the house of a "Mrs. Mansfield Lawlor," in Twenty-third street, frequented by Fisk, within ten minutes afterwards, the order having been sent to him by Messrs. Field & Shearman, through one of their clerks.

5. That immediately after receiving this order, Mr. Fisk, Jr., Mr. T. G. Shearman, Mr. Field, and Mr. Courter started together in a carriage for the Hudson River station, Fisk and Courter going on to Albany to take possession of the road; that, on reaching Albany, they found Mr. Pruyn in possession as receiver appointed by the court at Albany; that Fisk, Jr., thereupon telegraphed to Mr. T. G. Shearman in New York, announcing the fact that Pruyn was in possession; and Mr. Shearman thereupon went before Judge Barnard, and on an affidavit alleging that he had received certain information by telegraph, obtained from the Judge another injunction, forbidding Pruyn to act as receiver, or to "make any application, petition, demand, or request about his alleged receivership, except to that court in that action"—that is, except to Barnard himself—the courts at Albany, be it remembered, having already jurisdiction of the case, and the judges being men of unblemished character.

6. That Mr. Shearman actually telegraphed this injunction and "a writ of assistance" to the sheriff at Albany, and the sheriff attempted to execute them on the telegram, hours before the documents themselves, with the judge's signature, reached the city—a proceeding which has probably had no parallel in civilized jurisprudence.

7. That the court at Albany granted a stay of the telegraphic proceedings, but Barnard again set aside the stay, or ordered the sheriff to go on and take possession, and there was every prospect of an armed and bloody conflict, when the Governor called out the militia and took possession of the road.

8. That Judge Barnard granted an order arresting Mr. Ramsey, the president, Mr. Phelps, the treasurer, and Mr. Smith, the counsel of the Susquehanna Road, which Judge Smith declares "was procured to be

used and was used on the day of election of directors, in aid of the fraudulent purposes of Mr. Fisk and his associates"—namely, to remove these gentlemen from the room, so that they could not be present at the election at which Fisk and his associates were trying to get the Susquehanna road into their hands. They were arrested and removed a few minutes before the meeting, but were luckily able to get bail in time to be present.

9. That at this election, at which Fisk and his counsel were present the room was, immediately after their arrival, densely packed, fifty or sixty of those present being, to use Judge Smith's words, "roughs and fighting men" brought from New York by Fisk for the purpose, and furnished with proxies that they might vote and keep the regular stockholders out of the room. It was due to "the vigilance of the Albany police," according to Judge Smith, "that this meeting did not end in violence and bloodshed."

All this—we may mention for the guidance of the *Law Journal* in case it desires to make enquiries—in the State of New York, United States of America, and in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-nine.

AFFAIRS IN WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, March 4, 1871.

THE inexorable Ides (or rather Kalends) of March roll on alike over successful schemes and disappointed hopes. The Forty-first Congress, having added its unit to history, it is natural to compare its weight with that of its predecessors. The impetus acquired during the war, and which has shot the Republican party over the six succeeding years, is manifestly slackening, and the party lines are getting very loose. Gen. Butler diagnosed the case accurately when he said that the party could not hold together on any internal question, because it was too thoroughly divided in itself upon all of them. His logical attempt to supply the defect by getting up a foreign war, collapsed with a shock rather more severe than its author perhaps anticipated. He has been coquetting with the female-suffrage movement, but apparently finds it an insufficient basis for a Presidential run, if there be truth in the report that this astute politician is about to seek solace and retirement in the Governorship of Massachusetts. It is a striking fact that legislation has been almost all special instead of general. There are a plenty of bills to establish railways, but none to regulate railways as a whole; bills authorizing the establishment of banks, but none to regulate the system of currency; bills to remove disabilities and afford relief to classes and individuals, but none treating these subjects in a general and comprehensive manner. This follows naturally from the fact that representation is wholly special, not general. Every man in Congress represents a local and distinct constituency, and there is nobody to represent the sentiment and interest of the nation. Even the most public-spirited members are obliged, when questions come up affecting their own localities, to support them, and are thus stopped from blaming others who do the same thing in their turn. This was well illustrated in the debate last night in the Senate on the Sundry Civil Service Bill. The chairman of the Committee on Appropriations urged senators not to make any amendments, or, if any were proposed, to vote them down. Mr. Buckingham, however, secured an appropriation for a building in Hartford, on the ground that the city was ready to donate a valuable lot for the purpose. In an instant a dozen senators were on their feet, and within fifteen minutes amendments were adopted giving nearly a million for buildings in all parts of the Union. It is true that these amendments were afterwards laid on the table in a body, but this only shows, what must be allowed to this Congress, a negative virtue. There has been a determined opposition to private schemes, but of actual progress on the great questions of finance, education, and the reform of the civil and diplomatic services, the record has been very small.

In finance, the country is looking on with some curiosity to see by what process Mr. Boutwell is going to sell five per cents at par, when he is offered every week twice as many six per cent. bonds at a discount as he can buy. The first note of financial trouble abroad has come in the advance of the Bank of England rate of interest to three per cent., while exchange here, in the height of the cotton season, is at the full shipping point for gold coin. France has to pay two hundred millions of dollars this year, and four hundred millions in each of the years 1872 and 1873. If Mr. Boutwell attempts to control the gold market by increasing his sales, he is likely to get some financial experience which will be altogether new to him.

In the civil service, Mr. Trumbull has secured an amendment to the

Omnibus Bill authorizing the President to institute an enquiry into an adequate method of reform. With the pressure, however, to which he is subjected by members of Congress, it is safe to say that any plan he may devise will be one of those "particular" ones which is not available. The ardor of the President for this reform expressed in his last Message is said by good authority to have been a sop thrown, after the Congressional manner, to the public wrath at the retirement of the late Secretary of the Interior. The latest instance of the way gangrene is eating into the body-politic is in the appointment of the Professor of French at West Point. The office of United States Marshal at Boston was wanted for another partisan, and so the incumbent was transferred to the other post. Perhaps the linguistic acquirements of the pupils are of minor importance, but what is to prevent the military professorships from going the same road, with consequences to be developed in the next war as similar ones have been lately in France?

The vote for the choice of Speaker stood at 126 against 93, an index of the threatened change. The Democrats are open in their manifestations of glee, but the country may fear whether it does not point to confusion worse confounded. The Speaker, in his brief address, dwelt on the advantages of opposition in a free government. He omitted, however, to notice the fact, that in ours the efforts of opposition are almost wholly neutralized. Mr. Bayard, in his speech against time on the Enforcement Bill, stated the point when he said that his party could not obtain any information from the Executive against the wishes of the majority. Provided the majority and the Executive are in accord, the latter is completely shielded from responsibility behind the phalanx of the former. For this protection, however, it must be admitted that the majority amply indemnifies itself against the Executive by absorbing the lion's share of its power. This preponderance of the majority is further eked out by the element of secrecy. No bill of importance is submitted to the Houses until it has passed through a committee—that is, a board—which deliberates in secret, and the seal of whose approval is the basis of votes in the main body. The gag upon debate of the previous question has been found necessary in the House on account of the vast amount of business which claims equal rights of consideration, but it tends to increase the objectionable element commented upon. In the Senate, the check upon debate has not been carried so far, but the interminable length to which discussion of private matters is carried has kept the Senate much in arrears as compared with the House, and threatens to close up this last gap. As the committees of the two bodies may not come to the same conclusions, the conference committee holds the final secret session—trades upon the differences, and smooths the way to a final passage. In all this there is a provision for reconciling the separate interests in Congress, but the interest of the public at large seems to be of minor consideration.

The House voted to-day to adjourn *sine die* on the 8th of March, if the Senate concur. By many this is regarded as a piece of bunkum, relying upon the non-concurrence of the Senate. It may, however, indicate a desire to escape the San Domingo question, which it is said the President intends to press immediately upon the return of the Commissioners; and this trepidation may be increased by the understood intention of Senator Sumner to make a furious onslaught upon the Administration, in this connection, at an early day. As you have well pointed out, it is a cardinal error of Mr. Sumner to transfer the question to the point whether annexation is desirable for the inhabitants of the island. The speech of Senator Schurz pointing out the effect upon the United States seems to have been much more statesmanlike as well as effective.

FROM ANOTHER CORRESPONDENT.

March 5, 1871.

CONGRESS remained in session from 11 A.M. on Friday till nearly daylight on Saturday. I left the Senate at midnight on Friday, unable to await so interesting a scene as the taking of the vote on the reduction of the coal duty, because of the weariness of listening to perpetual amendments to the Civil and Miscellaneous Appropriation Bill. Several senators absorbed the few remaining hours of the session in offering amendments donating petty sums to charities, and giving appropriations to victims of the war, which were as regularly tabled as offered. The last words I heard, on leaving the Senate Chamber at midnight, were eloquent pleadings for five thousand dollars to repair a bridge over the Potomac, and the first, on re-entering the chamber a quarter of an hour before the expiration of the session, were similar words from Senator Howe. "These Sisters of Charity," said the senator, "have passed their whole lives in doing good, which we have not, therefore I appeal to you to give

them what they ask." But even an appeal based on so obvious a truth failed. As the hammer fell, Howard of Michigan was still setting forth the virtues of Sisters of Charity just as if the session and his career as a senator were not about to terminate. The Coal Bill was considered during the night, and although it was defeated by the filibustering of its opponents, the revenue reformers nevertheless won a handsome victory on the test motion to table the bill. The vote stood 35 against it to 15 for it. Only two New England senators voted with the protectionists—Hamlin and Sprague, while five voted with the revenue reformers—Edmunds, Buckingham, Wilson, Anthony, and Paterson. Sherman of Ohio proclaimed himself still a bigoted protectionist by voting for the motion to table the bill. This vote of 2 to 1 in the Senate for a practical measure of revenue reform, coming immediately after a similar vote of 3 to 1 in the House, will tend still further to increase the demoralization of the protectionists, already shown to be great by the action of the Ways and Means Committee in authorizing McCarthy to report a bill to reduce the duty on pig-iron to \$5 per ton, that on lumber to 10 per cent., and to lower the tax on salt one-third. When the Forty-first Congress met, it was admitted on all sides to be more wedded to protection than any which had ever before assembled, and now, in its closing hours, the protectionists themselves voluntarily propose wholesale reductions of the tariff. It may safely be said that there has seldom been so rapid a change of opinion on any subject in any Congress. Next to the trial of strength on the Coal Bill, the most exciting topic under discussion is the constitution of the Ways and Means Committee of the Forty-second Congress. There has been, within a few days, an influx of the leaders of both revenue reformers and protectionists—the editors of the *Chicago Tribune*, *New York Post*, *Springfield (Mass.) Republican*, and the officers of the Free Trade League appearing for the former, while Horace Greeley alone abundantly represents the latter. The protectionists have abandoned all hope of controlling the committee, and are ready to compromise upon Dawes for chairman; but the revenue reformers claim that their strength in the House entitles them both to the chairman and a majority of the members. Their candidate will probably be Garfield, while they expect to see such advanced reformers as Finkelnburg of Missouri, and Burchard of Illinois, put upon the committee, together with three radical free-trade Democrats like Brooks, Kerr, and Eldridge. It is understood that Speaker Blaine intends to satisfy the revenue reformers; indeed, he could not well do otherwise in view of their strength when acting with the Democrats. Competent judges estimate their united majority at forty votes, while their numbers are certain to be increased by defections from the ranks of the protectionists of those who have been deprived of protection to their special interests. It is thought that the freeing of coal would make ten votes for free lumber, and that free lumber would give at least a dozen voices for free iron. To the great surprise of most persons, the House voted yesterday to adjourn on the 8th. The Western men, who desire a reapportionment, are very angry. It is not certain that the Senate will concur, as the prospect of having to maintain Baez in power by the navy of the United States till next winter is somewhat alarming to Administration senators.

The latest reports are to the effect that Congress will not adjourn this week, the revenue reformers insisting upon the passage of the Coal Bill and Western men upon reapportionment. If the latter can be carried, there will probably be no appointment of committees till next winter. The chairmanship of the Ways and Means now lies between Garfield, Dawes, and Shellabarger. If reapportionment should be carried, Allison would return to Congress, and would then be the first choice of the revenue reformers for this important position. Speaker Blaine is anxious to postpone the naming of the committees till autumn, and thus relieve himself for a time of an embarrassing duty.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, February 17, 1871.

PARLIAMENT is now in full swing, and the Ministry appear to have begun work with creditable energy. Several important measures have already been proposed, and there seems to be a fair prospect for the session. The University Tests Bill has passed its second reading, and will speedily be sent up to the House of Lords, where I hope that it will reach some kind of settlement. A bill has been introduced for the regulation of trades-unions, which seems to be conceived in a fair spirit, and which will probably meet with general acceptance. I need not as yet speak at present of other promised measures. Last night witnessed the most exciting one which has hitherto taken place; and the entertainment may be said

to have consisted of a serious entertainment, followed by a farce. To deal with the last first, Mr. P. A. Taylor, an ardent democrat, redeemed the pledge which he had given to his constituents of opposing the Princess Louise's dowry. He made the regular comparison between the comparative cheapness of a queen and a president, and plodded through his task with little encouragement from an unsympathetic House. His motion was seconded by Sir C. W. Dilke, whose name may be familiar to some of your readers from his work on "Greater Britain." According to practice, the mover and seconder of the motion were tellers in the division which followed. The long procession of ayes filed into the lobby and back into the House during some twenty minutes, and men gazed with some curiosity for the appearance of the noes. At last, Mr. Taylor made his appearance, leading into the House his one faithful supporter, Professor Fawcett, and was welcomed by an inextinguishable outburst of merriment. The result of the division (in which "tellers" are not reckoned) was therefore 350 to 1; and the Princess has received her dowry with even more unanimity than had been anticipated. The three gallant members of the minority will perhaps receive the thanks of grateful constituents; but I fear the general sense was more nearly expressed by the growls of some of the majority, who muttered audibly: "You ought to be ashamed of yourselves." I am rather of that opinion myself, not because I am a particularly loyal supporter of the monarchy, but because I confess to thinking that such republican sentiment as exists in the country ought not to make itself ridiculous by taking up a paltry and rather personal question of this kind. In short, the whole affair was absurd, and does little credit to the judgment of its contrivers.

Meanwhile, another piece of business of more importance had been transacted. Mr. Cardwell had introduced the measure which will more than any other occupy the attention of Parliament during the coming session—that is, the bill for army reform. Mr. Cardwell is not a man of very imposing presence, and, as a general rule, is received rather with respect than enthusiasm. He is one of the last representatives of the Peelite school; he was distinguished at Oxford; and has developed into a steady official, with a little too much red-tape in his composition. Nobody expected any great eloquence in his exposition of the new measure, nor did he appear to be a fitting organ for the introduction of any sweeping reform. On the whole, however, he did his duty well, and even ended amidst something that might be called enthusiasm. Without dragging you into complex details, which, to say the truth, I do not for the present understand very perfectly myself, I will endeavor to indicate the main points of the scheme to be introduced. The first question concerned the adoption of some form of conscription. Government, however, has shrunk from so strong a proposal; and indeed, rightly or wrongly, our English prejudices are so unequivocally opposed to any compulsion in the matter, that the imitation of Continental policy in this respect is simply out of the question. We shall continue, as heretofore, to depend upon voluntary recruiting. The next point concerns the system of appointment of officers. As you know, the officers in the regular army are allowed, as a general rule, to purchase their commissions. In what are called the scientific services—that is, in the engineers and artillery—commissions are gained by competitive examinations. The officers of the militia and volunteers are appointed by the lord-lieutenants of counties. It will require no proof in writing to any one whose mind has not been reconciled to such an anomaly by long custom, that the purchase of commissions is an utter absurdity. Like all old-established abuses, however, which have worked themselves thoroughly into the constitution of the country, it has no want of ardent defenders. It was a question till lately whether Government would venture to deal with it boldly and finally. I am glad to say that they have had the courage requisite for the task, and that purchase is to be abolished. The main difficulty was the expense; and you will probably be surprised to hear that it will cost no less than forty million dollars to extinguish the vested interests of officers. This large sum will not be paid at once; but as officers retire, their commissions will be bought by the country instead of their successors. This reform will undoubtedly remove the main obstacle to all serious reform. The question remains, What is to be put in its place? In order to secure a due flow of promotion, commissions will be granted for five years only, and subsequent promotion will be made by selection; officers, therefore, who do not give satisfaction will be quietly extinguished when they find that they are not wanted. The first appointment to commissions in the regular army will be made by competitive examination, as a general rule, though certain other paths into the service will also be open, as, for example, the men who have held commissions in the militia, or have deserved promotion from the ranks. This change,

too, will be accepted as a great step in advance by the main body of reformers. I am not at all disposed to deny that it is an improvement on the previous system of patronage.

I may venture, however, to make one remark upon this head which may not be quite irrelevant. I see that your reformers in America are advocating the introduction, on a large scale, of the principle of competitive examination; and there, too, I have no doubt that such a system is infinitely preferable to allowing public officers to be used as means of political influence. From another point of view, however, the result cannot be regarded with unqualified satisfaction. We, in England, seem to be pushing the system of competition to an extreme; and it exerts a questionable influence in two ways. In the first place, there can be no doubt that an honest official could apply far better tests than an examination. No merchant or lawyer, for example, would select his clerks by such means when he could have the choice of putting them through a short probationary course. In short, you limit a man to choose by a certain definite mechanical process, in order to prevent him from making a corrupt choice. Examination is better than bribery; but it is not so good as the free personal discussion of an intelligent and honest man. Choice by merit is the ideal, and that is by no means the same thing as choice by results of answering a few questions on paper. But the other defect is more marked and deleterious. The abundance of competitive examinations exercises a most unhealthy effect upon our educational system. The proper theory of education is, as I take it, to develop all a man's faculties, and to apply as much labor to raising the average standard as to cultivating the talents of a few. The marked tendency of the present day is for schoolmasters to select a few promising pupils, and to cram them with those special kinds of knowledge which are most likely to win prizes. The effect at Cambridge, where the system has been carried out for years, is the narrowing of the whole education of the university, and forcing a few prodigies of special, and often useless, knowledge at the expense of the great mass, who are left to pick up dry fragments of information from an inferior class of men. The system of appointments to the Indian Civil Service and to the open branches of the army in England, has generated a whole profession of "crammers"—men who are the very antithesis of good teachers, whose efforts are steadily and successfully directed to the invention of contrivances for defeating the skill of examiners. These are very serious evils, and, I fear, they will receive an additional stimulus from the proposed change, though I believe that, on the whole, the new order of things will contrast favorably with the old.

To return, however, to Mr. Cardwell's measure: the next great object is to bring about a closer connection between the regular army and the reserve forces. To effect this, it is proposed, in the first place, to "localize" the various regiments. Every regiment, that is to say, will be attached to a particular district; it will be recruited from a fixed point; and the officer in command of the regiment will also have the command of the various reserve forces in the same place. Various subordinate measures are proposed for bringing the regular army and the reserves into closer connection, and for enforcing severer tests of efficiency upon the militia and volunteers. The recruits for the militia, for example, will be trained with those of the regular army, and the volunteers will be subject to the Mutiny Act when on service. Moreover, short periods of service will be adopted, so that a considerable reserve may ultimately be formed from men who have passed through the ranks of the army. The result of the whole system will be, according to Mr. Cardwell, that we shall have available for home defence an army of 470,000 men. Of these, however, it must be observed that the regular army will be a small minority. The volunteers, for example, count for 170,000 in the total, and the militia for about 140,000. The regular army would only amount to about 100,000 men. The value, therefore, of the measures now proposed will depend materially upon the degree of reliance which we are disposed to place upon the militia and volunteers. Upon that point I am not competent to express an opinion. The great and palpable defect of both forces is the absence of any adequate supply of trained officers; nor can I see that any sufficient means have been provided for remedying this serious defect. On the whole, however, I suppose that we ought to be satisfied when we consider the slow and tentative process by which reforms are always effected in England. We shall have got rid of the one gross and palpable abuse of the sale of commissions, and we may hope that other reforms will gradually follow, as the presence of new blood begins to make itself felt. That evil stopped the way so long to any serious reform that its mere removal must give a great impetus to improvement in other directions. I don't know whether I shall live long enough to see the day, but I cer-

tainly expect that, in course of time, England will have enough trained soldiers under arms to feel tolerably secure from invasion in the event of a foreign war, even though our great line of defence—the navy—were to be broken by some unforeseen catastrophe. But there are many steps to be taken, and many weary discussions to be plodded through, before any decisive change will have been brought about.

Notes.

WE have received the prospectus of an *American Archaeological Review and Historical Register*, to be devoted to archaeology, anthropology, and history, with especial reference to this country. The editor offers as a guarantee of his ability for the task his "thorough and systematic researches in the vast mound-field of the Mississippi Valley," and promises "besides original contributions, a comprehensive résumé of the latest foreign enquiries and research, a condensed sketch of the progress of discovery in all parts of the globe," together with "critical reviews and bibliographical notices of new publications on archaeology, ethnology," etc. There can be no doubt that such a publication is needed in the United States. The *Review* will appear quarterly or monthly, according to the support it receives, and the subscription price is fixed at five dollars. Mr. Wills de Hass, editor and proprietor, may be addressed at Box 2759, N. Y. P. O.—Messrs. Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, have in press "Fisher's Patent Reports," the author being Mr. W. H. Fisher, law partner of the late Commissioner of Patents, and the reports those of cases which have been decided in the United States Supreme and Circuit Courts since 1850. The price will be \$15 per volume for two or more, of a limited edition to match Hon. S. S. Fisher's "Patent Cases," published by the same house. They have also in preparation Saunders's "Law of Negligence," with Notes by Samuel R. Matthews.—Messrs. Hurd & Houghton, having undertaken to publish the works of the American Social Science Association, are about issuing the third number of that Society's *Journal*, which will compare favorably in value with the two that have preceded it; and a pamphlet whose title explains its object, which is a strictly practical one: "Free Public Libraries: Suggestions on their Foundation and Management." The "Handbook for Immigrants to the United States" is well advanced towards completion. On its own account, the firm will publish "The Lost Knight," translated from the German of Anastasius Grün.—The March announcements of Messrs. Roberts Bros. are: "Swinburne's Songs before Sunrise," more of Mme. Sand's novels, and "The Forest House and Catharine's Lovers" of MM. Erckmann-Chatrion.—The fourth series of verbatim reports of Mr. Beecher's sermons, from March to September, 1870, will be published immediately by Messrs. J. B. Ford & Co.—A memorial window has been thought a suitable monument for the late Alice Cary, to be placed in the Church of the Strangers in this city, which she was in the habit of attending, and from which she was buried. Contributions, however small (and the more numerous, the richer the window), may be sent to the leading booksellers in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, or to the pastor, Rev. Dr. Deems, 4 Winthrop Place.—Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press Bunsen's "God in History;" "The Coast of Norway," scenes among its fjords and islands, from Christiania to Hammerfest, by Elijah Walton, whose "Flowers from the Upper Alps" was a very charming work; and "The History of Florida," by G. R. Fairbanks.

—The Young Men's Christian Association of this city proposes to contribute \$10,000 towards purchasing the library of the late Mr. Thomas P. Barton, if it can obtain \$40,000 additional for that purpose, with the understanding that the 16,000 volumes thus secured shall be added to the 3,600 now constituting the library of the Association, and the whole be thrown open freely to the public, both day and evening. There will still remain shelf-room for 20,000 volumes, with ample accommodations for readers, and the directors hope in this way to found a public library comparable with those of Boston and Philadelphia. The valuation set upon the Barton library appears to be below its market value. It is strong in works upon natural history, philology and criticism, bibliography, literary history, and belles-lettres; has a fair collection of the best French, Italian, and Spanish authors, and in Shakesperiana "is unsurpassed in this country, and only equalled in some of the public libraries of Europe." The Association announces that a gift of \$1,000 will entitle the giver to an honorary membership of the Association in perpetuity, and of \$500 to a life-membership.

—The activity manifested just now, as our readers are well aware, in building up the libraries of the country by accessions from all quarters, is

one of the healthiest symptoms of the times. As it is displayed almost entirely at the North, we are perhaps in danger of forgetting in what a slough of ignorance the South still lies, and how prompt should be our sympathy and aid in raising her out of it, both by creating the means of education where they do not exist, and by encouraging those already established but lacking in vigor. We lately called attention to the deserts of the College of William and Mary, in Virginia, and we are incited to say something for the University of North Carolina, after having read a very forlorn account of the condition of its library. Of the general prosperity of this institution we are not informed. It was chartered in 1789, but first opened to students in 1795, and its library is said to be still, in all probability, what it has been, the largest in the State. In one sense this "speaks volumes" for the State; in another, quite the reverse. The total number of volumes in the University library is about seven thousand. Two thousand of these were added in 1859, being the first purchases made by the trustees since 1824. A large part of the remainder consists of State and United States documents—say another 2,000; and "furthermore," says the document before us, "the library has been enlarged by the deposit of some disused college text-books." This will suffice to give an idea of the state of learning in North Carolina, and as it is a disgrace not to that community alone but to the country, we trust the benevolent will remember in their gifts the library of the University, which, by the way, is situated at Chapel Hill.

—Dr. Seguin, in a very suggestive communication to the *Medical Record* of this city for March 1, brings to the life insurance discussion a criticism which may not have all the weight he would assign to it, but, nevertheless, has weight, and deserves consideration. Before all else, he attributes the insecurity of the companies to the mismanagement of the medical department, "due to a profound ignorance of the resources offered them by the recent progress of vital diagnosis." To illustrate his meaning, he cites two cases that recently came under his observation:

"A man of sixty-five, after an attack of apoplexy, followed by a slight paraplegia, had his life insured, and died within a year. The other, not over forty, but completely exhausted and worn out, came to me boasting that a company had insured his life, notwithstanding that I had told him that I would not give two cents for it; within six months, he had a pneumonia that he had not the vitality to carry to the seventh day. . . . In the former case, the sphygmographic traces would have been blunted by senile calcification, and otherwise distorted by the irregularity of the waves of the circulation. In the latter case, thermometry would have shown evening rises of temperature of more than two degrees—both pathological signs forbidding or invalidating any contract of insurance."

The so-called conjectural, rational, or physical diagnosis (by inspection, auscultation, percussion, etc.) is well adapted to detect actual or acute disease, which naturally, however, seldom presents itself for examination; but the conclusions derived from it can never be stated precisely, nor in the same terms by different examiners. "Positive" diagnosis, on the contrary, enables the physician to forecast the probable vitality, by means of indications absolutely correct and uniformly intelligible. Dr. Seguin urges elevating the medical officers of insurance companies to the highest rank, and abolishing fees and even salaries for them, securing the best talent by giving it an interest in the profits of the company; requiring them to possess and to know how to use all the instruments necessary for modern pathological investigations; and finally (when thus prepared), refusing no application for a policy, but insuring "not only upon a graduated scale of age, but mostly upon categories of probable vitality founded on physical and positive diagnosis."

—It is not a question that it is necessary to settle, or indeed possible to settle, which of the discoverers and inventors in which our time has been so fruitful has conferred upon his fellow-creatures the greatest benefits; but perhaps that one of their company to whom the rest would most willingly concede the highest place is the man who first introduced into medicine and surgery the use of ether. When we think for a moment and in the most general way of the enormous mass of suffering and extreme misery which ether has alleviated, and the enormous mass that has been prevented; and when we think particularly and in our own cases of the thankfulness that we have all at some time or another felt, to know that some life dear to us has been wholly preserved, or has been disburdened of useless torture, by means of this most blessed of medicines, we readily perceive that we should begrudge its discoverer almost no degree of gratitude and honor. We are sorry to say that it is at the present moment very desirable that this gratitude which every one must feel should find expression in benefactions to the widow and children of one of the claimants to the distinction in question; and we are glad to say that the necessity is recognized by certain gentlemen of Boston, who are acting as

a committee to collect a sum of money which shall raise the family to a modest distance above want. As our readers know, there has been a violent controversy as to which of two medical men should have the credit of being "the discoverer of ether," to put it roughly. This is not the time or place in which to reopen the discussion, even were we sufficiently acquainted with the facts and arguments, which we are not; and we refer to it only because it is necessary to say—what we think we hazard nothing in saying—that whether Dr. Jackson or Dr. Morton first discovered the value of ether as an anæsthetic medicine, we all owe very much to Dr. Morton for the energy and persistency with which he urged the use of the new agent upon the medical profession, and the courage with which he administered it despite the opposition of so many of his brethren. There can be no doubt, we take it, that the following letter of the late Dr. John C. Warren establishes Dr. Morton's claim on the gratitude of the country, and indeed of the civilized world at large. Dr. Warren was the first physician to employ ether in a capital operation, and some two months after having done so—namely, in January, 1847—he speaks as follows: "I hereby declare and certify to the best of my knowledge and recollection that I never heard of the use of sulphuric ether by inhalation, as a means of preventing the pain of surgical operations, until it was suggested by Dr. William T. G. Morton, in the latter part of October, 1846." In this instance, Dr. Morton, being firmly convinced of its value, took all the responsibility of administering the ether, and did administer it in this case, and other cases, at first in spite of the protests of physicians in various other cities as well as Boston. We are of opinion that this, at all events, may be truly said of him, that we owe to Morton the first great proof of the safety and utility of etherization in surgical operations; and, further, that he was the chief and most enthusiastic advocate of etherization, and was such in spite of an opposition which might have daunted a more cautious man. Mrs. Morton and her children are, as we have said, now in narrow circumstances, and a certain number of Bostonians have set on foot a movement for their relief. Among the names on this committee are those of Dr. Jacob Bigelow, Dr. J. Ingersoll Bowditch, Dr. C. G. Putnam, Hon. William Whiting, J. J. May, Samuel Kneeland, Dr. Luther Parks, Dr. Henry I. Bowditch, Dr. R. M. Hodges, Dr. George Hayward, Dr. J. C. Warren, and Dr. Francis Minot. Dr. Minot, whose address is "No. 7 Charles street, Boston," will receive subscriptions. A national testimonial the committee would like to make it, and they ask for small sums as well as large; the least offering will be gladly received, from the poorest man or woman to whom relief has been brought by "the medicine before whose advent"—to quote, with a difference, the words of the committee—"in all time, surgery was agony; by which pain in surgery is averted and annulled; since whose advent science has controlled pain." As the committee suggest, Massachusetts might well ameliorate the "straitened circumstances" of the widow of a man whose labors have reflected honor on the State; and the testimonial might properly be national as being a reward bestowed by the national legislature for a discovery which was greatly to the honor of the whole country.

—Mr. G. P. Marsh, in his articles in the last volume of the *Nation* on the proposed revision of the English version of the Bible, pointed out some glaring defects in the means proposed for the attainment of the desired end. In the first place, the movement originated with, and has thus far been confined to, the Anglican Church—or, in other words, a single sect of the English-speaking Protestant community. In the second place, it is not supported by even the whole of that church. The province of York has refused to have anything to do with it, and it is wholly in the hands of the province of Canterbury. Worse, however, remains. The two "companies" charged with the revision of the Old and New Testaments respectively were directed to call in the aid of other scholars, no matter to what nation or denomination they belonged. But, in spite of the fact that America contains some thirty millions of Bible-reading Protestants, they called in no American; in spite of the fact that the greatest Hebraists of the day are Germans and Jews, they called in neither German nor Jew. But in a moment of liberality, they did call in a Unitarian, a scholar of high and well-earned repute, Mr. Vance Smith, and he is so little of a rationalist that at the first meeting he took the communion with them. Now, however, they have grown sorry for letting even him in, and at the late meeting of the convocation of the province of Canterbury a resolution was passed in the Upper House which declared it expedient that nobody should take part in the revision of the Scriptures who "denied the Godhead of the Lord Jesus Christ," and directed Mr. Vance Smith's expulsion. This resolution was carried by ten to four. Dean Stanley in the Lower House gave them a severe castigation, charging them with trying "to honor the

Saviour's name by a distinct breach of faith." The Bishop of St. David's, perhaps the ablest man in the Upper House, has resigned his place in the companies of revision in sheer disgust. The new version would have had but slender authority as matters stood; now it will have hardly any.

—Mr. Hain Friswell's "Modern Men of Letters Honestly Criticised" has just cost his publishers the sum of \$2,500, which it is difficult to imagine they can ever recover from the sale of the wretched book itself. The author, among other stupid, ungrammatical, and more or less malignant "criticisms," had exposed Mr. Sala to public contumely as a Bohemian, "a driveller of tipsy, high-flown nonsense," a genius in the hands of the Jews, "often drunken, always in debt, sometimes in prison, and totally disreputable," with much amplification of these charges. The *Daily Telegraph*, with which Mr. Sala has been connected for fifteen years, also came under Mr. Friswell's tomahawk, and the result of Mr. Sala's taking counsel with the proprietors was a suit for libel with the result just mentioned, the defence calling no witnesses, and making a very lame appearance in court. This is not, however, the first time that Mr. Friswell has been arraigned and convicted, though in a different forum. Many of our readers will recall his "honest" appropriation of Mr. Bartlett's "Familiar Quotations," and that the magnitude of the theft was only matched by the clumsiness of it on the one hand, and the impudence on the other; for (see the *Nation* of Feb. 7, 1867), in his preface to the first edition, he stated: "It is believed that no other work exists in the English language at once so copious and exact," and to the second: "Its merit is recognized as being the work of a man of letters, as distinguished from that of a mere book-maker." From piracy to libel is, for such a character, but a step.

—Most noticeable among recent English publications and announcements are the following. In history: "Robert Emmet: the Cause of his Rebellion," "Notices of the Jews by Classic Writers of Antiquity," by John Gill; "The Dawn of the Second Reformation in Spain" (i. e., from 1852), by Robert Peddie; "Records of the Reformation—the Divorce 1527-1533," collected and arranged by Nicholas Pocock from MSS. in the British Museum, the Public Record Office, the Venetian Archives, and other libraries; "The Fall of Metz," by G. T. Robinson; "The Siege of Paris," by Professor Nathan Sheppard, who has been the constant and very able correspondent "par ballon monté" of the *Cincinnati Gazette* and (less fully) of the *Examiner and Chronicle* of this city. With the foregoing may be classified: "The Church and the Churches in Southern India," being a review of the Portuguese missions thither in the sixteenth century, by Joseph Albert Lobley; "Keshub Chunder Sen's English Visit," edited by Sophia Dobson Collet; and "The Dictionary of Biographical Reference," by Lawrence B. Phillips—a work which contains over 100,000 names, filling 1,000 pages medium octavo (Sampson Low & Co.) In travels, we note only Mrs. W. A. Tollemache's "Spanish Towns and Spanish Pictures," though an old traveller turns up in "England Rendered Impregnable," by the Old Shekarry, who, if heaps of slain are all that is needed, is certainly qualified to render England or any other country impregnable. "The Great Duel, its True Meaning and Uses," is by W. R. Greg, who has been a very staunch defender of Germany in the late war. The three works which follow complete our list: Dante's "Divina Commedia" translated into English verse and *terza rima* by James Ford, and not the least worthy attempt of the kind; "On the Eve," a rather imperfect translation of a novel by Turgeneff; and "Shakespeare's Hard Words," by Professor Baynes, of St. Andrews—originally printed in the *Edinburgh Review*.

—In the course of some operations at the workhouse of St. Martin's recently, the laborers opened one of the "plague pits" of the Great Plague in London. The bones have been removed (*vasta moles*) to consecrated ground. At the bottom were found remains which had been buried in coffins—one of lead, the others of wood; but as the plague progressed no time was given for boxing the bodies in any manner, and the deposits of the later date were a medley of skulls of all growths and of inarticulated bones. The discovery has been kept secret, owing to the prevailing small-pox panic, and to a general belief that on a former occasion, when one of these pits was opened, the severity of the cholera then raging was in a great degree due to this cause.

—Mr. Frederick May's "London Press Dictionary and Advertiser's Handbook (1871)" is a very complete source of information in regard to the publications of the metropolis—their times of issue, office address, price, opinions, specialties, etc.; and a guide also to the organs of "each interest, profession, trade, religious denomination, science, etc., represented in the British and Irish press." It is a compact and handy volume of

some 60 pages, that sells on the other side for a shilling. From the statistics in the preface it appears that 316 newspapers are published in London, of which 21 are dailies. New York, according to the last Directory, publishes 235, and we reckon nearly or quite as many dailies as in London, which has three times the resident population of this island. In periodical publications, magazines, reviews, and the like, we naturally fall far short of London, which, intellectually considered, is Great Britain much as Paris is France. Here the total number is 473, against 109 in New York. We lack the data for a more detailed comparison, but the following table establishes the curious fact that New York is the more cosmopolitan city of the two:

Newspapers published in French.....	London.	New York.
German.....	5	4
Spanish.....	2	21
Portuguese.....	1	2
Italian.....	1	1
Scandinavian.....	0	2
Total.....	9	31

The most striking disparity is in the number of German papers, and we have even left out of count some Hebrew journals, which are printed partly in German and partly in English.

—A correspondent sends us a timely extract from the "Agreeable Companion," a rare book published in France in 1745, which runs thus:

"The French Tyrant [Louis XIV.], in a vain glorious Boast, caused the following Verses to be inscribed on a Marble pillar at Versailles, to tell the Greatness of his Actions to future Ages, viz.:

*"Una Dies Lotheros, Burgundos Hebdomas una,
Una domat Batavos Luna; Quid Annus aget?"*

In English thus:

*"Lorain a Day, a Week Burgundy won,
Flanders a Month; what wou'd a Year have done?"*

Which being seen by the Lord Willmot, the late ingenious Earl of Rochester, he presently writ underneath:

*"Lorain you stole; by Fraud you got Burgundy;
Flanders you bought; but God you'll pay for 't one Day."*

—This is good for prophecy. Now for a parallel between the besieged capitals of the ancient and modern Caesars. In a lecture on the Roman Catacombs, delivered by Mommsen before the Berlin Unionsverein in January, the historian, dating the disuse of the catacombs from the Gothic capture of Rome, "thought fit," as the *Academy* remarks, "to point his narrative with a series of allusions, thus":

"In spite of the enormous circumference of the walls, the twelve gates were all beset, commerce on the Tiber was stopped; the pressure of hunger began, they began to ration out the bread. . . . The government resided far away in Ravenna, inaccessible and impregnable among its swamps; it sent armies to raise the siege, but they never reached, and were separately crushed. The Goth did his best to bring about a peace; his demand was for contributions in money and kind, and the cession of Venetia, Noricum, and Dalmatia. They offered him gold and silver as much as he would, but beyond that nothing was to be got," etc.

—In support of the view entertained by M. Erckmann, the novelist, of the dangers which threaten France from the hostility of the North and South, Dr. Edward Boehmer, in his "Provenzalische Poesie der Gegenwart," brings out the fact that the revival of Provençal poetry in our day has a political significance, so far as it asserts the distinct race and language of the Provençals and seeks to resuscitate the latter, and to cherish the pride of origin in those who speak it in its modern and mutilated form. The number of these non-French-speaking Frenchmen (since Provençal cannot be admitted to be a patois) is estimated at ten million; and if to these be added a million and a half Basques and Celts, and as many Germans in Alsace and Lorraine, more than a third of the population of France before the war had no national unity with the rest. The war has not, however, if the poets may be trusted, strengthened the separatist feeling in Provençal; and the anti-northern feeling of poems like "The Countess," which Professor Boehmer has collected, yields in the present crisis to the patriotic sentiment. The latter is strongly manifested in the *Almana provençau* for 1871.

—The rumor that negotiations are on foot to transfer the seat of the Papacy from Italy to Belgium are doubtless as baseless as most of the reports so industriously flashed across the Cable, and yet they serve to remind us of the extreme ultramontaniam of a powerful party in modern Flanders—the enduring work of Alva and of Philip II. The historical battle-ground of Europe is still the scene of a stubborn fight between mediævalism and modern thought, and the champions of the latter some two years ago established an "organ" which deserves a more cordial recognition than it has hitherto received on this side of the Atlantic. The

Revue de Belgique is a monthly magazine, in which politics, history, and belles-lettres are cleverly mingled. The writing is good, and the spirit which pervades the whole is one of thoughtful progress, and those who desire to watch the development of a struggle which is sure to come in Belgium might do worse than add it to their list of periodicals. In two recent numbers now before us, we have been particularly pleased with a biographical essay by Charles Rahlenbeck, displaying much original research, on Cassiodoro de Reyna, one of the Spanish reformers who were driven out by Philip II., and who spent their weary but useful lives in wandering between England and Switzerland. It is a curious chapter of the unwritten history of that tumultuous time, which will probably never be fully brought to light for lack of materials. Some verses by Charles Potvin are not without point:

*"Peuples, quand un César défile,
Ne craignez point de mauvais jours:
Une couronne impériale
Cela se ramaeue toujours,"*

—a prophecy already fulfilled, though when it was written the fallen Napoleonic diadem had not been replaced as yet by the Germanic.

—Das also war des Pudels Kern!
Ein fahrender Scolast?

A quaint document, bearing date 20th October, 1540, "Geben und gescheen zu Heydelberg uff mitwoch nach Galli, anno funffzehenhundert und viertzig," has just been unearthed from the Baden archives, and printed by Dr. Maurice Gmelin. It is a decision of Louis V., Elector Palatine, in a dispute between the Burgomaster and Council of the city of Spire on the one part, and the ecclesiastical authorities of the "Dhumb"—i.e., the Dom or Cathedral—the churches of St. Germanus's, St. Guy's ("sant Guidon," also called in the same paper "Quidon"), All Saints', and the clergy of Spire at large, on the other part. The matter at issue is a *res parva dictu*, but magnified by party spirit into an exceeding great strife, and the document is not without interest as throwing a gleam of light on a very dark subject, the "Currende." It has always been known that from remote times "poure scolers" had the prescriptive right in many towns of Germany of going about the streets singing and asking alms. But what the exact nature and organization of the Currende was, and its relation to the university, to the charity funds, and to the general system of education, is not at all clearly known. The literature on the subject is wonderfully scanty. While the history of education as a whole has been pretty thoroughly worked out in Germany, the humble Currende has been overlooked. It is rather doubtful whether the work of Scharaschmidt, "Geschichte der Currende," said to have been published—Leipsic, 1807—ever saw the light. At any rate, a work published in 1807 would not be of much value in 1871. The encyclopedias generally dodge the word. Even the peerless dictionary of the Grimms gives a definition not only meagre and unsatisfactory, but—if the words are pressed—positively wrong: "Currende: *das lauffchor, pueri cantando per plateas stipem erogantes*"—unsatisfactory, because it leaves out the scholastic feature of the Currende; wrong, because "*stipem erogantes*" means not asking but distributing alms. Still, the Grimms' meaning is plain enough, though their Latin is bad. At Spire, it seems, a great many well conditioned, able-bodied men (vill vermöglicher starcker leut) regularly abused this charitable provision. They decked their children out as scholars (hingen innen schul-secklin und schreybeuglin an), and sent them round the town crying "Bread, a Goddes name, *panem propter deum*." Two evils ensued from this: the bread was taken out of the mouth of the real scholars, and it became quite hard to get laborers in Spire. To put a stop to such impositions, it was ordained by the city authorities that no scholar call for alms (umb das almusen), by song or otherwise, unless furnished with a token to show that he was what he claimed to be. Hereat Dean and Chapter waxed wroth. The question of privilege came up, and the united clergy blazed out with an indignant protest. "It was an infringement on their liberties, contrary to usage; in short, an innovation." This troubles the good Landesvater sorely; he is afraid that further ill-will and "onpleasantness" (weytter widerwill und onfreundtlich nachpurschafft) may follow. After looking the matter over carefully, he decides, and rather, it would seem, on the side of the Burgomaster: Namely and imprimis (nemlich und zuerst), that the Burgomaster and Council are to provide a certain number of tokens or badges "die nit uber eins batzen grosz sein, mit sant Katherinen bildnus," no bigger than a groat, and stamped with the head of St. Catharine; said badges are to be turned over to the ecclesiastical dignitaries, who are to distribute them to the scholars. The scholars, when crying alms, are always to wear or bear

the badges, but they are not required to have them about their person at any other time. How the decision of the Elector was relished by the clergy we are not informed.

—An unquestionable vestige of the Currende still exists at Tübingen. Regularly, on a Thursday morning, the *pauperes*, led off by a lively sort of Mayor of Garrat, with his voice turning again toward childish treble, go about the town, singing the old, old songs. Every window flies open, and the tattered choir is greeted with a perfect storm of bravoos, and pelted with morsels of food by the gay-hearted *ciues academici*. It is to be hoped that the publication of this document may provoke some inquisitive German to write a thick book on the Currende. To do it as it should be done is not an easy thing. It requires an intimate familiarity with school and university usages, with church history, with out-of-the-way folk-lore; some acquaintance with the manners and customs of Street Bands, though perhaps not that exhaustive knowledge which a life-long study of this specialty has given the venerable Charles Babbage; and a mind illuminated with a poetic mediæval fervor, quick to catch and cunning to delineate the subtle humor and pathos in the lot of these obscure strugglers. Neither can it be well done without a minute knowledge of local German history. Very little help, as we have already said, could be got from printed books. But surely, in the vast piles of archives amassed by those methodical and easy-writing Germans, there must be material enough to enable a duly qualified mouser to make a very entertaining and withal a very instructive work. Where are all the Learned Societies? What Royal Academy steps out first with a prize of a hundred thalers in gold for the best "Kurzgefasste Geschichte der Currende, nach den Quellen bearbeitet," no dissertation to exceed a thousand pages in length? For the present the "poure scolers," with their plaintive *panem propter deum*, have vanished—no token left—"nit uber eins batzen grosz, mit sant Katherinen bildnus"—to show what manner of men they once were. And the Currende seems to have drifted out into some of Mr. Carlyle's favorite Limbos.

—We had something to say a month or two ago about the considerations by which we should be governed in the matter of publishing to the world such works and words of great men as they themselves had for one reason or another seen fit to leave unpublished. What we said was said in contemplation of the fact that the *Williams Review* was then on the point of publishing some old Commencement Parts by Hawthorne, the late Senator Fessenden, and others—exercises done in college while these men, who afterwards reached distinction, were still boys, and unthoughtful of the public which afterward they strove to please and instruct. We expressed ourselves as inclined to think the publication unjustifiable, or at least in but doubtful taste. Upon this we were asked by the managers of the *Review* to tell them why we thought this action of theirs one of doubtful propriety; and, further, to lay down any rule on the subject which had it been adhered to would not have worked injury to the world by depriving it of truer views of its great men and taking from it much valuable literature. We cannot say that we have been able, after pondering the matter some time, to see our way clear to framing any such rule; though, certainly, we have not changed our mind as to the special case which called out our remark, nor come to any other than our former conclusion as to our own unwillingness to take the responsibility of doing what the *Review* did. It would seem, on the one hand, to be for the general good that everything possible should be known of the men who stand out above their fellow-men conspicuous in the intellectual history of the race; well for our future progress that, so far from cultivating the habit of looking on the wonders of literature and life as mere miracles to be stared at, we should seek from all sources all kinds of information, however distasteful to us or however trivial, that may assist us to discover their true nature and other genesis; well, in short, for man, and in the end for each of us individually, that the driest light of truth should be thrown on everything. Pope's brilliant wit and his literary skill are among the intellectual glories of his age, and a part of the inheritance which ours gratefully receives; but need "Atticus," for example, or Mr. Cibber, or Lady Mary feel that human nature is degraded and the world made worse because Mr. Elwin comes forward and proves that the immortal to whom we are so much indebted was one of the most unscrupulous and pitiful of falsifiers and maligners? Was no service done when Sheridan's biographer published the manuscript *various lectiones* of the impromptu jokes of that wit? Lady Mary and "Atticus" and the Anne-Augustan dunces and some of the Georgian believers in solid work and sound morals, discredited by the shining parts of the brilliant orator, might feel themselves justified in praising the fullest truth as the only justice, the only thing always

profitable to all. Or, again, how shall a rule be laid down and accepted that would have deprived us of the Johnson of Boswell, or any part of him, though we can imagine what the expurgating pen of the Doctor would have done had his young friend's manuscript once been submitted to it; and though, too, none of us who are fondest of the matchless biography could have blamed the Doctor had he made tremendous slashes in the portrait as we see it drawn.

—But, on the other hand, does it not peculiarly become us, as having been made partakers in the free benefactions of great men, to accord them the privacy which we demand as our right? Should they not be permitted to give what they choose and withhold what of theirs they choose to withhold? Are we not losers rather than gainers when in our eagerness searching everywhere, we learn, whatever else we learn, be it much or little worth, that our idol's feet are clay, and that our sometime demigod is no more than man? Apparently we must take sides against our former position; so far, at any rate, as to concede that probably this sort of offences needs must come; and that we all find it pleasant enough to have them come. But one has a feeling, too, that one would hardly like to be the man by whom very many of them do come; and that the rule, that it is well everything that is known about personages in whom the world has an interest should be told, is a rule which, practically, is often not binding upon us without many limitations—indeed, is a rule upon which, not seldom, it is unpermissible to act. Taste must often settle the matter; often it must be settled by considerations of justice and right feeling, considerations so impalpable as to be near akin to considerations of taste. Perhaps the intending collector of *ana* could do no better for himself—however he might for the world—than to bear constantly in mind Swift's remark about certain books: that there are books which we read with a lively pleasure, while at the same time we conceive for their authors a sincere contempt. Trelawney told us about Byron something that it was well enough to know when he told us that on the death of the poet he stripped his lower limbs of their covering and found that their deformity was caused by their being withered from the knee downward; but also he told us at the same time something worse of another person.

AN ENGLISH GOVERNESS IN SIAM.*

MRS. LEONOWENS was fortunate in her opportunity of authorship. For several reasons, which it is not difficult to discover, the people of the Western world have known much less about Siam than about other oriental countries not more important nor more interesting. It lies somewhat on one side from the great highway of commerce; and the great gulf on which it borders, and through which it must be approached by the commerce of the outer world, is liable to sudden and perilous squalls, which make navigation unpleasant, if not difficult. Moreover, the anchorage at the head of the gulf is nothing but an open roadstead, with a dangerous bar obstructing the river, except for vessels of small tonnage. Any one who has ever tossed for three days in a gale of wind in this exposed position, waiting for a chance to cross the bar even in a small boat, will not wonder that commerce has busied itself with other fields which, though not in all respects richer, are more easily and directly accessible; and that Siam has had to wait its turn till India and China had been first explored. Within a few years a carrying trade in foreign vessels has been created between Siam and China; and a rice famine in the latter country was on one occasion averted, or greatly alleviated, by the surplus of the crop from the rich valleys of Siam.

Concerning some of the neighboring countries, a good deal of popular information has been given to the Christian world by reason of the great success which has attended the efforts of missionaries—notably the efforts of American missionaries in Birmah, of whom Judson was chief. But in Siam, although intelligent and zealous missionaries have been at work for years, they have hardly been able to show any success of the sort that appears in statistics of missionary societies. They have, indeed, been very useful in introducing a knowledge of the arts and sciences of Christian civilization; and in this part of their work, which is both a considerable and a legitimate part, they have received an almost unexampled patronage from the Government—a patronage intelligent and liberal. But, though we see to-day, as the result of their labors, the strange spectacle of Christian science and art flourishing in the palaces of Buddhist kings and princes; though we find that one of the American missions has for years

* "The English Governess at the Siamese Court. Being Recollections of Six Years in the Royal Palace at Bangkok. By Anna Harriette Leonowens." With illustrations from photographs presented to the author by the King of Siam. Boston: Fields, Osgood & Co. 1870.

been self-sustaining, chiefly through its printing-press, yet there has always been, on the part of the Government, a jealousy of religious proselytism, and an opposition to the introduction of Christian doctrine, against which the missionaries have found it impossible to make much headway; so that the Siamese missions have not been popular at home, and popular information concerning the country in which they are planted has not been called for, as it has been in regard to countries where the converts are numerous and the churches flourishing. If we except the work of Bishop Pallegoix, for years the esteemed head of the Roman Catholic mission, and the two volumes of Sir John Bowring, who negotiated the existing treaty with Great Britain, there has been nothing to awaken or to satisfy popular interest in Siam, except occasional sketches in magazines, missionary reports, and stories of voyages; so that Mrs. Leonowens had the fairest possible field and the best of opportunities for book-making.

The letter from the supreme King of Siam, which is given in her preface, and which was her commission as governess to the royal children, whose name is Legion, is very interesting, as illustrating what we have said concerning the attitude of the Government toward Christian nations. It is an autograph letter, such as his Majesty was fond of writing on the smallest provocation, and in his funniest style. The governess is warned (we quote) "that, in doing your education on us and on our children (whom English call inhabitants of benighted land), you will do your best endeavor for knowledge of English language, science, and literature, and not for conversion to Christianity, as the followers of Buddha are mostly aware of the powerfulness of truth and virtue, as well as the followers of Christ, and are desirous to have facility of English language and literature more than new religions." The eager desire for learning, the jealousy of religious influence, the sensitiveness to the opinions of the outside world, the patriotic self-respect, and the affectation of dignity thus oddly combined and expressed, are very characteristic of the King. And it must have begun to be apparent to Mrs. Leonowens, from the very terms of her commission, that to "do her education" on a royal family, with such a touchy and dictatorial pupil at its head, was to be a task of no small difficulty.

So, indeed, it proved. If the King would have let her alone, she would have had little trouble with his wives and children, who were docile and manageable enough. Indeed, the little children of her charge won her heart at once by their characteristic beauty and amiableness—qualities upon which other travellers and writers have also remarked. But this mature pupil of sixty, to whom the new governess was expected to make herself generally useful (as she discovered, to her great dismay), presently made her life a burden to her. This is from the description of her first introduction to the palace:

"I have sixty-seven children," said his Majesty, when we had returned to the audience-hall. "You shall educate them, and as many of my wives, likewise, as may wish to learn English; and I have much correspondence in which you must assist me. And, moreover, I have much difficulty for reading and translating French letters; for French are fond of using gloomily deceiving terms. You must undertake; and you shall make all their murky sentences and gloomily-deceiving propositions clear to me. And, furthermore, I have by every mail foreign letters whose writing is not easily read by me. You shall copy on round-hand, for my ready perusal thereof."

To this general programme his Majesty adhered with great fidelity, and the unhappy governess had a hard time, compelled to yield to the most unreasonable caprices, and sometimes expected to assist in correspondence which went against her conscience by its untruthfulness. Probably, however, she was at no time in peril of her life or liberty, as she imagines herself to have been; for the King and all his court were too mindful of the good opinion of the foreign powers, and too well aware of the prompt energy with which any ill-treatment of a British subject would be resented, to venture on any violence or injustice. The work which Mrs. Leonowens had undertaken must often have proved disagreeable enough; but it was probably never dangerous, and the excitement of terror and distress into which she seems to have fallen not infrequently was scarcely justified.

Whenever the author is occupied with the story of her intercourse with the royal family, she is very lively and every way admirable. Her first interview with the King (from which we have quoted), bears evident marks of accuracy, as minute and perfect as if it had been reported at the moment by a stenographer. And she appreciates keenly enough the humor—sometimes unconscious and sometimes intentional—which marked his Majesty's conversation and correspondence. On the whole, her estimate of his character is not unfair, and when we remember how often and how seriously she must have been provoked by his caprice and shocked by

his cruelty to the various members of his household (very seldom to his children, let it be remembered in his favor), she leans rather to the side of charity in her judgment. Her sketch of the Second King, with whom she seems to have had no personal acquaintance, is excellent. So is her estimate of the Prime Minister. And she has a kindly mention of that most jovial, most corpulent, and most hospitable of princes (whom every visitor to Siam must think of with esteem), Krom Lhuang Wongse, the King's half-brother.

No doubt, Mrs. Leonowens has done well to occupy herself chiefly with what occurred behind the scenes, and in the domestic life which no writer but herself has been permitted to observe. What she has told about the King, and what she saw in the process of "doing her education" on his household, is so interesting that we cannot help wishing she had recorded it more in detail. But one whose employments were so various, and from whom such unreasonable duties were exacted, may be excused for having left undone much which she would otherwise have gladly done. As it is, the book is half-filled up with geographical, historical, and other padding, not very skilfully inserted, and very disorderly in its arrangement. Indeed, when the author comes outside of the palace gates, and away from the immediate care of her pupils, she grows uninteresting. Her description of Bangkok is very incomplete, and nothing can well be more unsatisfactory than the account of her visit to the Nakhon Watt. The illustrations are good so far as they go, but are not the most characteristic that might have been chosen. Apparently, the writing of this book was an afterthought; and when at last it was undertaken, the author was obliged to use what material she had, and not what she might have had if she had been making notes and collecting material from the beginning. It is a book of recollections simply, or rather of recollections and padding.

But when we have said this, we have still left room to say that it is one of the most entertaining of recent books of travel, and that it will serve to introduce multitudes of readers to a country of wonderful wealth and beauty; to a court in some respects the most interesting in the world, and to a people with whom an increasing commercial intercourse, and the introduction among them of a Christian civilization, must make us more and more familiar.

THE MAGAZINES FOR MARCH.

READING Mr. Thurlow Weed's recollections of Winfield Scott, published in *Harper's* for March, one recalls the depth of veneration with which the boys who had rejoiced over Lundy's Lane and Chippewa and the geography-books' pictures of Perry's victory on Lake Erie, used to regard our old-time American heroes. It is curious to see that it never occurred to Mr. Weed, when he was honored by being a passenger on the same steamer which carried the Lieutenant-General across, that he was in all ways quite as worthy of respect as the rather pompous officer whose presence he was anxiously respectful. The main business of the essay is to tell how Mr. Dayton, Mr. John Bigelow, Mr. Weed, and Archbishop Hughes met at Mr. Dayton's house in Paris, and decided that in order to allay the storm of excitement caused in France and England by Wilkes's seizure of Mason and Slidell, a letter from the Lieutenant-General ought forthwith to appear in the London and Paris journals. But the General's right hand was known to be swollen with gout, so that he was physically incapable of writing; yet, as he was "fastidiously careful of his literary reputation," how to get his name appended to a letter containing not only the phraseology of another man, but another man's punctuation also—"in regard to which he was particularly tenacious and sensitive"—was something that puzzled the counsellors extremely. However, Mr. Weed went to him and begged for a letter; the General agreed that such a letter was eminently necessary, and did not deny that he was the man to write it, but pointed to his swollen hand and said nothing could be done. Thereupon Mr. Weed remarked that if the General would only talk to him and give him his views, they should be embodied in words by somebody outside, and afterwards submitted to the author for revision. The General gave consent, and Mr. Weed went back to the Legation and astonished them by the story of his success. Meantime, Mr. John Bigelow had been at work for three hours preparing a letter in his well-known style, and this Mr. Weed shortly afterwards presented to its putative author, who "expressed his warm approval of every sentiment, and his admiration of its style and tone, and attached his large bold autograph" to it without altering a word or erasing so much as a comma.

Mr. Curtis's remarks about Jefferson's Rip Van Winkle and the chat about the trials of lecturers in far-off towns is in his more successful vein. For the rest, there is nothing out of the usual course in this month's *Har-*

per's, except, perhaps, a more than usually feeble sensational story called "Wed in the Morning, Dead at Night," which is far below the level of the love stories in which this magazine is so prolific. Persons desirous of reading about Florida may find in this number of *Harper's* a not very bad though not at all good account of the everglades and their fish, fowl, and beasts.

The *Atlantic* contains nothing particularly noticeable unless it be the beginning of Mr. Henry James's story of "A Passionate Pilgrim," which bids fair to develop several kinds of passion, but which in this instalment is largely devoted to the passion of affection, to call it so, which is inspired in many American hearts by the charm of the old country—the England of the literature of poetry and fiction and history which has been dreamed over for many years, and is now seen as the England whose meadows, and green lanes, and ancient castles and cathedrals, and farm-houses perhaps as ancient could alone without the poet or the romancer charm the heart as well as delight the eye.

"Ups and Downs of the Bourbons and Bonapartes," by a writer old enough to remember having paid civil attentions to Charles the Tenth when he fled from France, will be found pleasant enough reading; and still more so will be found the discursive notice of Miss Julia Wedgwood's recent biography of John Wesley. The book is not an adequate treatment of the subject of it; nor is the essay so good as, considering its subject, it ought to be, but both may be commended for perusal. The latter is worth looking at if only for the sake of this picture of the state of discipline among the Wesley children. As soon as they were "turned of a year" "they were taught to fear the rod, and to cry softly." Or if only for the sake of this hint of the condition of the English country clergyman of small means only a hundred and fifty years ago: a certain clergyman being in a house where, as in many houses, the chaplain was expected to retire from the board before the second course came on, was one day so temerarious as to help himself to a jelly. He himself is the narrator of the story, and he remarks that "the lady of the house, though otherwise a devout woman, told me that it did not become a man of my cloth to delight in such frivolous food."

"Shoddy" is a printed lecture of the somewhat rhetorical sort by Mr. E. P. Whipple, and has for its contents some of the things which the title will suggest to the lecture-goer, and some writing of the kind which also is known to the lecture-goer. "Kate Beaumont" has been a rather vulgar story from the beginning, but it has throughout had some clever surface sketches of the Southerner as he used to be, and perhaps will be when made into a book worth the attention of most readers who are still interested in that field of fiction. "Woman's Rights in Ancient Athens" is some account of a couple of the comedies of Aristophanes, in which the author is bold enough to present the argument that when men become entirely useless in war and likewise in debate, women if properly led may surpass them.

The poetry of the number is at its best in "Marguerite," by Mr. Whittier. It is a love story—in metre of bad example by the way—about a girl whom he describes rather queerly in the third verse:

"Sick in an alien household the poor French neutral lay"

—as if she had been a brigantine or schooner. But it is a touching little story, full of feeling and affection. Mr. Longfellow we believe it is who writes out a Jewish legend which will command wide approval; Mr. Taylor gives us a translation of the prelude to "Helena"; and Mr. Howells some pleasing stanzas, done some years ago perhaps, called "The Mulberries."

The *Galaxy* has nothing more noticeable than a much-heralded article on the San Domingo question—an article understood to be, if not inspired from high quarters in Washington, at least written by some one conversant with the plans of the Administration, and well supplied with such information as the Administration has to give. We wish it joy of its advocate. A Congressional committee reporting on a contested election case could not be more feebly and obviously one-sided and committed to a foregone conclusion. There is a specimen of the author's style which may be taken also as evidence of his mental calibre, for we have not space to go into remarks on his statements of fact and his inferences. He is talking about Mr. Sumner's opposition to the passage of a resolution which authorized the sending out of a commission—an opposition characterized by more than the usual degree of overbearing rashness and insulting laxness of speech which have so often neutralized the good effects of Mr. Sumner's hardest and best-intentioned work. After he had finished a certain speech, says our author, "as suddenly as rose the warriors of Clan Alpine

an army of giants in debate sprang to the defence of an insulted chief. That chamber has seen many a bitter strife, but it has generally been between man and man, or the encounter of opposing parties. Now it witnessed the sight of nearly all the speaking talent of the party drawn up against one who professed the same political faith. One after the other swords were drawn by men trained to cut and thrust, and who had fierce and carte at their fingers' ends. There was Morton with his clear logic and ready powers of debate; Nye with his keen satire; Chandler with his sledge-hammer blows and 'pungent but not unparliamentary' speech; Conkling with his towering eloquence and crushing invective, whose friends thought he had 'struck his best gait that night.' Better even than this last touch is the conception of Mr. Chandler as dealing death-blows or using language more pungent than handfuls of mud.

An article not so bad as the one just mentioned, but about equally unworthy of a place in a magazine of the *Galaxy's* pretensions, is that entitled "The Higher Education in America," a matter which would seem to form just now the care of people who would have done better to get what education this country affords before dealing so roundly with us as to our American lack of such universities as Germany got when she was ready for them, and as we shall have in due time, and, indeed, are now nearer having than the writer before us knows. Not that he has not some sensible things to say, or that his article is not worth the attention of such as have not listened to the current arguments on this much-discussed topic. But the presumption is not strong in favor of any higher education in a man who comes to us to reason with us as to our need of culture, and begins by referring us to "that matchless book," "The Reveries of a Bachelor."

Old and New has some more about the "Porter-Humphreys-Hardin" swindler, and a historical review, not ill-done, from the standpoint of a Unitarian, of the last few decades of the English "church as by law established"—a form of words that ought to strike somewhat strangely on the ears of people who have another conception of "the church" than that it is the state as engaged in the function of teaching ninety-nine different doctrines as to the relations of man to God, Christ, heaven, and hell. From a Unitarian point of view, too, is written the article which talks of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims, and of its being celebrated by the delivery of an oration in a Unitarian church, the auditors being people of all shades of religious belief and of no religious belief in particular, and the orator being a sound Episcopalian—as some Episcopalians count soundness. Yet still, as the writer well quotes, the Rev. John Robinson's parting words to the Pilgrims were such as these: "The Lord hath more truth yet to break forth out of his Holy Word. I cannot sufficiently bewail the condition of the reformed churches who are come to a period in religion, and will at present go no further than the instruments of their reformation. Luther and Calvin were great and shining lights in their times; yet they penetrated not the whole counsel of God. I beseech you remember it." For the rest, *Old and New* has some more of Mrs. Stowe's story of "Pink and White Tyranny," which offers direct encouragement to plain girls, and has brought the pretty girl of the story to reading French novels, which the husband, however, gently but firmly takes away from her; the beginning of a Dickens-like story by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; some inferior poetry; some book-notices, none of which is successful; and certain other matter.

Story-readers will be pleased with "The Blood-Seedling," by Mr. John Hay, which appears in this month's *Lippincott's*. It will not bear reading twice, for there is not much of it except the surprise at the end of it; but that is well managed. Better than anything else in the magazine—which has a story by "Ouida," and an unpractical essay by Mr. Amasa Walker, on "The Moral of the Franco-Prussian War"—is some account of Mr. Robert Walsh's mission to San Domingo and Hayti just twenty years ago. He was sent out by Fillmore and Webster to act in conjunction with commissioners from France and England, who were to try if they could not prevail on the Haytians and Dominicans to refrain from cutting each other's throats as soon as the rainy season had so far passed as to give them a chance at each other. We advise any one who thinks he has a good reason for annexing these gentlemen to us to turn to Mr. Walsh's account of them. Mr. Chandler's plan, or whosoever it was, that by the annexation of an island with the climate of San Domingo we should raise the average temperature of the United States, and thus benefit the poor man, and break down the coal monopoly, is the only reason upon which to fall back that we see remaining.

Of the *Catholic World* not much is to be said. There, too, "The

Higher Education" gets some attention, and the writer states clearly his belief and that of the church as regards any and all education—namely, that the church it is which shall say what is to be taught and who is to teach it. The writer of the articles on Mr. S. Baring-Gould's "Origin and Development of Religious Belief" appears to be still bothered to make out what Mr. Gould's point of view is, and talks of him as if he were some sort of lost metaphysician. He has his excuse for being in a confused state of mind as to Mr. Gould, for that gentleman has been "in pretty tall grass," as they say in New England, ever since he undertook philosophizing on religion; but as he is an out-and-out Ritualist Episcopalian, who, in writing this last book of his, was attempting, or pretending to put himself in the attitude of, free enquiry, whence he was to proceed to put Christianity on a basis of philosophy, the shortest way for our reviewer, and the least wearisome to all concerned, would be to employ the usual method which Roman Catholics adopt in the case of people who believe in the earlier church, and do not believe exclusively in the Roman one of the three fragments into which the earlier church has been split. There is nothing to prevent his being told that it is illogical in him to insist where he is, and that he must eventually come over to Rome.

"Early Missions in Acadia" will be found interesting, and any one who wishes to see a bad form of the historical novel mixed with the religious novel, in one of its more disagreeable forms, may see it in these chapters before us of "Dion and the Sibyls." Though, for that matter, to be sure, one might say that there is so little of the novel about the performance that one is at liberty to look upon it as a sort of historical study of certain personages, and an attempt, like Becker's, say, to reproduce for us certain details of a daily life of classical times. Perhaps the worst of the matter is that, except very reverent or very sceptical persons, almost everybody not very coarse in taste will be more or less disgusted by the introduction of Jesus into the story.

Life and Nature under the Tropics; or, Sketches of Travels among the Andes, and on the Orinoco, Rio Negro, and Amazons. By H. M. and P. V. N. Myers. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1871. 12mo, pp. 330, with several full-page illustrations and a map.)—The expedition to tropical America, of which this little volume is an account, was sent out by the Lyceum of Natural History of Williams College. This most successful of all our college natural-history societies, and which, we may say in passing, has had no inconsiderable influence in promoting science in this country, has already sent exploring parties to Florida, Labrador, and Greenland, besides regions nearer home. The spirit of adventure and discovery seems to have culminated in the expedition to South America, which has resulted in two of perhaps as readable and useful accounts of foreign travel as our literature has produced for several years.

The party divided at New York, one party sailing by way of Panama to Guayaquil, the other taking passage in a trading vessel to Caracas, or rather its seaport town, La Guaira. With the doings of the latter division of the expedition we shall chiefly concern ourselves. Professor Orton has already given us an account of the expedition from Quito over the Andes, down the Napo River to the mouth of the Amazons, a second account of which occupies the last half of the present volume, and which is mainly a repetition of Orton's narrative. The line of travel of the Caracas and Orinoco party was from that city southward to the Orinoco, up a portion of that river to San Francisco, thence southward still up the Atabapo River, down the Rio Negro, and homewards by way of the Amazons. The route from San Francisco to the Rio Negro had not previously been traversed by Americans, and the whole trip, with its dangers and difficulties, both from the physical obstacles of the route and the delays occasioned in procuring guides and boats, called for an unusual amount of pluck and perseverance in the three young men that composed the small party. Moreover, the story of their hardships and dangers is told in a "boyish way" that is certainly very attractive. Much good judgment has been exercised in the treatment of the different topics, and the whole book is a compact, well-balanced narrative, leaving on the mind vivid and clear views of the physical features of the vast region passed over, with the more salient points in its natural history, geology, and ethnography.

The authors are not *savants*, or they would not have called "fossil specimens of the marine fauna" what were simply fossil marine animals. They would not have called the maniti, or sea-cow, a cetacean, for "this herbivorous cetacea" is no cetacean at all, but a true ruminant, with a whale's physiognomy; hence no wonder that its fat is "void of that odor peculiar to cetaceous oil generally." Neither is a shark,

though monstrous enough morally, a "cetaceous monster," as certainly as a whale is not a fish. "It seems strange to speak of grasses as forming forest," but hardly less so than to refer to the Bambusa as "that arboreal gramina," when arboreal grass is meant.

This book gives us, however, the only account we have in our own language of the country about the head-waters of the Orinoco, except the "Travels" of Humboldt. In physical geography, we have here presented a fresh account of the *terra caliente* of the coast; the cool and beautiful Valley of Caracas, that would be a paradise were it not for the memories of the terrific earthquake of 1812; with fresh descriptions of the vast internal seas that cover the llanos during the rainy season, when broad rivers are obliterated, and the canoe-men steer by the sun across river basins and over forests, while floating caimans fill the place of sharks in these illimitable fresh-water seas, which, like the mid-Atlantic, have their regions of perpetual calm. In matters of more human interest, we have sketches of the honest, simple, indolent Indians, as harmless as they are degraded. Reference is made to the tribe which live like monkeys in trees, as described by Humboldt, but our travellers do not seem to have met with them. The Amazonians evidently never penetrated into the highlands of Venezuela, if we may credit our authors' statements that "for the first and only time while in the country we saw a woman seat herself at the table in company with men. Among the better class of Venezuelans it is customary for ladies to take their meals in their rooms, having them brought by servants; while among the middle and lower classes the women wait until their lords have eaten, when they take possession of the table with what may be left, or, as is more commonly the case, they crouch with the children upon the ground in the corner, where, from the iron pots, they take their food."

In geological matters, brief reference is made to the gold regions of Venezuelan Guiana—the veritable "El Dorado"—which "embrace the broken mountain-ranges lying about one hundred miles south of the Orinoco, in the eastern portion of Venezuela, between the rivers Essequibo and Caroni." But these rich and promising gold-fields are two hundred miles from the Atlantic coast, and far out of the line of travel of our party, though at the time of their temporary sojourn at Urbana on the Orinoco, the inhabitants were suffering from an attack of the gold-fever. Any information concerning the subject of the former existence of an Amazonian glacier is acceptable, but no additional facts of importance seem to have been observed either for or against the theory, though both sides of the case are presented with fairness. The authors lean to the opinion that there was an intertropical winter—at least, such a reduction of the temperature as to cause a lowering of the snow-line upon the Andes, and the formation of local glaciers among the serras of Brazil. This most geologists are probably willing to admit, but it is quite a different thing from a continental glacier, filling the Amazons valley one or more thousand feet in thickness, and loading the Atlantic with icebergs, such as Agassiz has suggested in his remarkable theory.

Nomina Geographica. Versuch einer allgemeinen geographischen Onomatologie. Von Dr. J. J. Egli. Erste Lieferung. (Leipzig: Fr. Brandstetter; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1871.)—This dictionary of "Geographical Names," which is also, as we remarked the other day, to embrace a treatise on the principles underlying geographical onomatology, promises to add one more to the many shining monuments of German erudition. The lexicon proper, of which we have the letter A and the beginning of B before us, is to contain seventeen thousand names—belonging to all divisions of the globe and all languages, as well as to all classes of geographical objects—lexicographically arranged, and accompanied by etymological explanations showing not only the meaning, but also the natural or historical reason, of every appellation. Names bestowed upon localities by discoverers, concerning which the original reports of travel give authentic information, will form more than half of the collective matter, while those for which there is no plausible derivation will be ignored. The authorities which serve the author as guides in this vast and checkered work are—as the introductory list of them and almost every page of the text show—not only correspondingly rich and varied, but of the highest critical value. The following notices—taken from one page—which we translate in a somewhat abridged form, may serve as specimens of the work:

"ALMADEN, the mine, Arabic name of a Spanish town renowned for the rich quicksilver mines in its vicinity. The same word, properly *el-Ma'aden*, appears in the name of Fort Almada, opposite Lisbon, 'ainsi nommé parce qu'en effet la mer jette des paillettes d'or pur sur le rivage.

Durant l'hiver les habitants de la contrée vont auprès du fort à la recherche de ce métal. . . Edrisi, translated by Jaubert, ii. 26."

"ALMADEN, NEW, name of an important quicksilver mining locality in California, called after the Spanish Almaden. *Zeitschrift für Allgemeine Erdkunde*, 1856, p. 9."

"ALMALY—Turkish—apple-place, a village southwest of Sivas, in Asia Minor. Tchihatcheff, 'Reisen in Kleinasien und Armenien,' p. 13."

"ALMANNAGJA, all men's chasm—from *al*, many or all, *manna*, gen. plur. of *madur*, man, and *gja*, chasm—name of a grand mountain gorge in Iceland, in which, during and after the time of the Icelandic Republic, 927–1800, the Althing, the people's court or general assembly, was held. Preyer and Zirkel, 'Reise nach Island,' p. 80."

"ALMATCHINSKIY, from the Kirghizian *almat*, apple, the name of a Russian fort in the Kirghiz country, signifying the Almataian, that is, situated on the river Almatâ. Old Chinese maps have at this place Gurban Almatu, meaning: three rivers with apple-trees, three apple-rivers. Humboldt, 'Asie Centrale,' iii. 226; Petermann's *Mittheilungen*, 1858, xvi. 497."

"ALMEJAS, GOLFO DE LAS, shell-fish bay, name of a bay on the west coast of the Californian peninsula. Duflos de Mofras, 'Exploration du territoire de l'Orégon, des Californies, etc.,' i. 231."

"ALMON—Hebrew—seclusion, a place belonging to the tribe of Benjamin. Josh. xxi. 18. Gesenius, 'Hebrew Lexicon.' Present name 'Almith. Robinson, 'Neuere biblische Forschungen,' 376."

"ALMÓRA, from *almóri*, a kind of sorrel—*Rumex hastatus*—abounding in the vicinity, Hindî name of a place in Kamâon, Hindostan. Schlagintweit, 'Geographical Glossary,' p. 169."

The unusual correctness of the numerous quotations contained in the work, from the original of books written in a large number of languages both ancient and modern, may be considered a guaranty of the trustworthiness of the references, which so considerably enhance the value of this dictionary. In Hebrew characters alone we discover here and there a slight oversight. Thus we find *Adillam*, for *Adullam* (p. 6), *Ay Khappe tor*, for *Iy Caphtor* (p. 7); and *Anakh*, for *Anab*—a mistake which has led the author to the erroneous substitution of an article "Anak" for "Anab." We are also surprised to find the Semitic "Ammon" omitted, while the Egyptian and its derivatives are given. In the same way we find "Arabab," but no article explanatory of "Arabia;" and Mount "Araxos," but no river "Araxes"—though the derivations given of the names Arabah and Araxos are perfectly applicable to the names omitted. A graver omission is that of both "Babel" and "Babylon." "Ægates" is wrongly referred to "Gader," instead of to "Ægades," as the latter article shows; and the explanation of "Argos" can be found only under "Argon Pedion." Some notices omitted at their proper place are given in a brief supplement to the letter A, and we hope the author will add a general list of corrections at the end of the whole work. He calls his production a *Versuch*, and as such it is certainly excellent, in spite of its defects.

Lectures and Essays. By J. R. Seeley, M. A., Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1870.)—Perhaps the most striking characteristic of this volume, containing ten papers on almost as many subjects, is that it should be the production of a Cambridge professor, and especially of a professor of history there. In contrast with the labored and solemn lucubrations of Sir James Stephen on French history, and in still stronger contrast with the spasmodic sentimentalism of Mr. Kingsley, the plain, straightforward, sturdy English in which Mr. Seeley speaks to Cambridge men of their political duties, to English teachers of theirs, to clergymen of theirs, is in whole some evidence of the great advance made by the best class of English talkers in the art of talking to the purpose, and in the business of having a purpose in their talk. Mr. Seeley represents at Cambridge very much the direction taken by Goldwin Smith at Oxford, and by Matthew Arnold in even a wider field—that of all English-reading scholars. All three are masters of style, in a way that at times tempts them, Arnold most of all, into phrases that really outrun their meaning, but at least they never begin to speak or to write until they have a set purpose, and their plain intention is to bring others, and particularly younger persons, to their way of thinking, or at best to such a consideration of their thoughts as shall not give hearers or readers the excuse of never having been asked to think about the matter in hand. It is this plain earnestness of speech that makes the writings of such Englishmen as Mr. Seeley so attractive and so useful, both in themselves and as examples of what the modern

English standard of scholastic style is, or ought to be, in the foremost masters of it both abroad and at home.

If we had a hand in securing an American reprint of this volume, we would put first and foremost the lecture which is the last in the English edition, that on "The Teaching of Politics," as much for the vigorous, simple phrases of the introductory remarks as for the sound sense which pervades it. Next to it should come the lecture on "English in Schools," for if our schoolboys get less Latin and Greek than their English fellows, they get quite as little English, and that little very bad, whereas a decent discipline in their native language would give us men with sounder thoughts and more precision in the expression of them than we now find in most of our public writers and talkers. Next in interest, originality, and value are the papers on Milton's political opinions and on his poetry, and, taken together, they form a capital commentary on the place now assigned him in modern English literature—a far safer one than that claimed for him by his extravagant eulogists, and more likely, too, to win him readers.

Of the articles specially technical, such as those on "Liberal Education in Universities" and "The Church as a Teacher of Morality," the interest is mainly English, though the thoughts are often of more than local application. For instance, Mr. Seeley's advice to clergymen to preach politics might well be heeded in our American pulpits. The business of an English university is so different from that of our colleges, that the paper on that subject, and the frequent recurrence to it in almost all the studies on cognate topics, commend themselves rather to those in search of information than to the general reader. The lectures on "Roman Imperialism" were reprinted, at least in part, in *Littell*, and have thus already made a large circle of readers in this country familiar with a capital example of Mr. Seeley at his best in the matter of style, while investing an old and familiar subject with new phrases even where there was little room for original ideas. The paper on "Elementary Principles in Art" is rather a mild specimen of padding. Altogether, however, the series has a value and importance beyond that of the immediate subjects under treatment, as showing how broad a field is cultivated by the men who are acknowledged leaders in current or rather contemporary English literature; and we cannot but regret that similar essays by American scholars whom we certainly should not rate below Professor Seeley, require, or are thought by publishers to require, a fanciful title to propitiate readers among their countrymen.

The Middle Kingdom. By S. Wells Williams. Fourth edition. 2 vols. (New York: John Wiley & Son. 1871.)—The reissue of this standard work evinces the interest felt by Americans in all matters pertaining to China and the Chinese. Few publications of a similar nature have achieved a more merited and widespread popularity than "The Middle Kingdom," it being accepted, both in this country and in Europe, as the best authority upon Chinese matters extant. The copy before us presents a marked improvement over previous editions in mechanical finish, both as regards letterpress and illustrations. We must, however, enter a protest against the words "fourth edition" on the title-page, as, however technically correct, they are calculated to mislead the public. The words "new edition" so generally imply a revision and emendation of previous issues, that one feels inclined to resent their application to a bare reprint, as is the case in this instance. How literally the old text has been adhered to may be easily seen. Thus (vol. ii., p. 594) we read: "From the close of the year 1844 to the present period, nothing has occurred to disturb the amicable relations existing, in general, between China and other nations except the opposition of the citizens of Canton, etc." And again, p. 599: "They (the Chinese) are afraid to act against the opium vessels on the coast, most of which sail under English colors, lest the Governor of Hong Kong demand reparation, etc." Nothing is said of the disturbances which have so lamentably signalized the history of foreign intercourse with China during the past decade, or of the treaties which legalized the opium traffic, and thereby added considerably to the income of the Chinese exchequer. We have taken these examples at random from pages which, accurate enough when first written, stand grievously in need of revision now that twenty-seven years have elapsed since their original publication. Had the retention of these pages been accompanied by an explanatory note, but little need have been said in the way of criticism. But the "preface to a new edition" only brings matters up to 1860, with the very briefest mention at that; leading the uninformed reader to infer that no event worth recording in the history of foreign intercourse had occurred since the signing of the Tientsing treaty.

It is to be hoped that Dr. Williams will, before long, undertake the revision of his second volume, and thus render the work under notice not merely our best authority on all that relates to Chinese geography, ethnology, manners, and customs, etc., but complete also as a history of foreign intercourse with that remarkable people. Meanwhile, despite the grave omission we deem it a duty to point out, "The Middle Kingdom" remains the most perfect compilation relating to China yet published in any European language.

Tertullian. Vols. II. and III. Ante-Nicene Christian Library. Edited by the Rev. A. Roberts, D.D., and Jas. Donaldson, LL.D. (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. New York: Chas. Scribner & Co.)—In noticing the first volume of "Tertullian," against "Marcion," a general estimate was given of the value of this father, and the characteristics of his style were indicated, especially in contrast with the Apostolic writings. Vol. II. contains other controversial essays and theological disquisitions, chiefly upon the humanity of Christ, the resurrection of the flesh—which is pressed to a bald literalness—and the nature and destiny of the soul. Vol. III. contains essays singularly adapted to these times, upon such topics as monogamy, chastity, modesty, and the veiling of virgins. The counsels to the virgins would be specially distasteful to a class of advocates of the publicity of women; and it must be admitted that some of Tertullian's phraseology is hardly more modest than the demonstrations at which his satire is aimed. Clearly enough, the contest between feminine forwardness and womanly reserve is not a fruit of the light and progress of the nineteenth century. Even Paul and Peter had an inkling of it, and, in Tertullian's time, it had assumed formidable proportions. "Put on," said he, "the panoply of modesty, surround yourself with the stockade of bashfulness, rear a rampart for your sex which must neither allow your own eyes egress nor ingress to other people's."

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